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ABSTRACT

This publication reports on a Regional Workshop held in New Delhi, India, in January 1980, to study major trends in the development of educational goals in Asia. Discussed at the workshops were educational goals, policies, and problems: how belief systems and ethical values affect educational goals: and the role of regional and international cooperation. Representatives from the following countries attended the sessions: Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia: Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Republic of Korea, and Thailand. The first part of the publication presents an overall review of educational goals and their translation into policies and programs based on reports from the 11 participating nations. The second part contains the reports from the 11 individual countries. In defining the various stated goals of education, the country papers very often present a mixture of moral, religious, political, social, economic, and cultural goals. Moral goals expect education to develop a human being with all humane qualities. National security and solidarity are the prime concern of most of the countries. Cultural goals appear to fluctuate between moral and religious and social goals. There is considerable stress on developing social equalities through education as an instrument of social transformation. There is an overwhelming desire on the part of all the countries to link education with economic development. One of the major goals is to strengthen the base of vocational and technical education to produce the needed skilled manpower and labor force. In most of the countries political goals, followed by economic goals are the determinants of educational policy making, while spiritual and moral values occur more to provide for political ends. Two educational goals for which concrete policies have been generated are equality of educational opportunities and education related to employment. (Author/RM)

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THEORIES OF EDUCATION

GOALS AND THEORIES OF EDUCATION IN ASIA

Report of a Regional Workshop

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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P A R T I

REPORT OF A REGIONAL WORKSHOP

INTRODUCTION

Origin and objectives

The Regional Workshop on Goals and Theories of Education in Asia, organized jointly by the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, the International Bureau of Education, and the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, was held in New Delhi from 15-21 January, 1980, with the Ministry of Education of the Government of India as the host. The workshop was one in a series launched in 1975 in pursuance of Resolutions 5.31 and 3.11 adopted at the Eighteenth Session of the General Conference of Unesco,authorizing the Director-General to promote research in the philosophy and aims of education. The beginning of this new programme, devoted to a critical scrutiny of the foundations of contemporary education, was marked by a meeting of consultants in Geneva in June 1975, followed by a second meeting held in Paris in June 1976. These were followed by meetings at a regional level in Beirut, for the Arab States, and in Dakar for Africa. The workshop also kept in view the findings of a number of regional expert meetings on the research dimension of educational goal formulation, notably the Expert Meetings on Educational Goals, Aims and Objectives in Asia, organized by the National Institute for Education Research, Tokyo, Japan, in 1969, 1970, 1971 and 1973 and in Manila, Philippines in 1972.

The main objective of the present Regional Workshop was to study major trends in the development of educational goals in the Asian region, with particular reference to the connection between educational goals and educational policies in a future perspective, while taking into account the socio-cultural factors existing in different countries.

The workshop provided a forum for achieving more clarity about the complex set of inter-relationships between belief and value systems, educational goals and theories, the decision-making and policy formulation processes in education, and the reality of educational development. It was to generate clearer ideas about the philosophical, curricular and research aspects, as well as management practices needed for a more meaningful formulation and implementation of educational goals.

Inauguration

Professor M.V. Mathur, Director, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi, India, extended a warm welcome to all the participants and special invitees to the inaugural session. After giving a brief background of the National Institute, he thanked the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, Bangkok, and the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, for providing this opportunity to the Institute for hosting the

workshop. The text of Professor Mathur's address is at Appendix A.

Mr. Raja Roy Singh, Director of the Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, Bangkok, thereafter welcomed the participants on behalf of Unesco. He thanked the member countries for responding to Unesco's invitation, and the Government of India for agreeing to host the workshop in New Delhi and providing the hospitality of the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration. He thanked the Chief Guest, Professor D.T. Lakdawala, for agreeing to inaugurate the workshop. The text of Mr. Raja Roy Singh's statement is at Appendix B.

Inaugurating the workshop, Professor D.T. Lakdawala, Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission, Government of India, emphasized the urgent need to establish operational linkages between the functions of educational planning and those of educational administration. He said that linkages were necessary because changes in society and in environment demanded continuous adaptation of the educational system and its organization, methods and orientation. The text of his inaugural address is at Appendix C.

Dato' Haji Ahmad bin Haji Saleh of Malaysia proposed a vote of thanks.

Participation, documentation and organization

The workshop was attended by 11 participants from ten different countries in Asia, two discussants from the region and one observer (for list of participants see Annex I). The workshop was guided by its agenda (Annex II) and organized its work following the adopted time-table (Annex III). A number of working papers, reference papers and information papers prepared by the Secretariat, and analytical reports from 11 countries guided the workshop in its deliberations (for list of documents, see Annex IV).

At its second session the workshop elected the office bearers. Upon the proposal of Mr. Ram Chandra Bahadur Singh (Nepal), Prof. M.V. Mathur (India) was unanimously elected as Chairman, Dato' Haji Ahmad bin Haji Saleh (Malaysia) and Dr. Saiyut Champatong (Thailand) as Vice-Chairmen and Dr. Khalid Hasan Bokhari (Pakistan) as Rapporteur.

The workshop met in 12 plenary and ten group sessions. Agenda items 3, 4 and 5 were introduced in the plenary sessions by the discussants, after which the workshop broke up into two groups (see Annex V for membership of groups). The groups then reported on their findings regarding the agenda items in plenary session the following day. Agenda item 6 was discussed in plenary only.

The report

For purposes of internal coherence, six written reports, presented by the two groups and covering three agenda items, have been integrated into the final report which closely

follows the agenda.

The introductions by the discussants have also found their place in each of the chapters of the final report. The present document is divided into two parts - the report itself, and the country papers from 11 countries of the region.

The workshop adapted its draft final report in the last session on 21 January, 1980.

Closing session

At the closing session, the discussants reflected on the achievements of the workshop, and urged the Secretariat to follow up the suggestions contained in the report. Dr. Antonio Dumlao expressed the group's gratitude to the Government of India in enabling everyone to participate in such an enriching experience. Mr. Raja Roy Singh congratulated the participants on their openness in the discussions, which he felt reflected the maturity of the region in the sensitive areas of policies and goals. He thanked the Rapporteur for his work on the draft report.

Prof. M.V. Mathur officially closed the session and Dr. Khalid Bokhari proposed a vote of thanks.

Chapter One

EDUCATION GOALS AND POLICIES: A REGIONAL REVIEW

The participants presented their country reports on the first two days of the workshop. These had been prepared in accordance with guidelines provided by Unesco Secretariat. The guidelines raise issues concerning the relationship between belief and value systems and educational goals, educational goals and the process of development, educational goals, policies and perspectives and attendant problems and constraints, and the role of regional and international cooperation. Based on the 11 national reports (see Part 2), this section presents an overall review of educational goals and their translation into policies and programmes. The findings of this analysis apply to at least one country of the region, but do not necessarily reflect the position or trends of the entire region.

Major educational goals

In defining the various stated goals of education, the country papers very often present a mixture of moral, religious, political, social, economic, and cultural goals. This shows that it is difficult to split the life of human beings into various compartments, and that educational goals are more often broad statements aiming simultaneously at the happiness and well being of individuals and the preparation of future citizens of a nation. In fact, the aim is to develop a wholesome personality in consonance with the political outlook, economic needs, and social and cultural ethics of a particular nation.

Moral goals. Moral goals expect education to develop a human being with all humane qualities. These include some universal values, e.g. the inculcation of integrity, honesty, self-discipline, conscientiousness, truthfulness, compassion, courage, dutifulness, love of freedom and justice, belief in hard work, respect for manual work, and a sense of responsibility. Respect for the religious faiths and beliefs of fellow citizens is also considered in many countries as a moral obligation. The outcome of these values would be the development of human personality so as to include the rational and humane use of all things, living and non-living. It is expected that by practising the above set of values, educated citizens would foster desirable personality traits, develop creative abilities and enjoy good health.

Political goals. National security and solidarity have been focussed as the prime concern by most of the participating countries. It is expected that education should

develop proper attitudes and inculcate desirable values so that educated citizens may be loyal to their country and the Constitution, respect the national symbols and have a strong sense of national identity. There is an emphasis on patriotism and national pride. Some also stress the necessity for developing international understanding for the common good of mankind as a stated goal, while others aim at directing education to developing political philosophies in their citizens. Some countries emphasize religion, while others aim at socialism, democracy, secularism and the development of individuality and pursuit of individual excellence. Some countries mention development of political leadership through education. Peace and happiness are considered one of the outcomes of the stated political goals by one country.

Cultural goals. Cultural goals appear to fluctuate between moral and religious, and social goals. There is a desire to cultivate appreciation of the national heritage and also to promote desirable traditions and aesthetic values. One country considers development of pride in the national history as a cultural goal. In the case of multiracial nations, respect for the culture, faith and traditions of others is included as a cultural goal. The fruitful use of leisure is emphasized in one country paper. The development of a balanced personality is the outcome of the cultural goals of various countries.

Social goals. There is considerable stress on developing social equalities through education as an instrument of social transformation. Provision of equality of opportunity is emphasized. This includes extending education to minority groups, underprivileged sections of society and to the handicapped. In some cases it also includes providing educational opportunities to girls and women. In countries which are multiracial and multilingual, the development of emotional integration is described as the social goal. There is an emphasis on developing a need-based curriculum related to societal aspirations. It is visualized that education develop a sense of social responsibility in individuals towards family, community, society and the nation at large. This could be developed by formulating educational programmes in which more and more students participate in community work, e.g., national social service programmes. The goals also seek to extend educational facilities from the formal system to non-formal education by developing social education programmes for adults and early school leavers.

Economic goals. There is an overwhelming desire on the part of all countries to link education with economic development, and to do this the desired objective is to train and retain the required personnel in the various fields, especially those of science and technology. One of the major goals is to strengthen the base of vocational and technical education to produce the needed skilled manpower and labour force. It is visualized that this requires necessary positive attitudes towards work and workers. In view of the advancement of science and technology, a large number of

vocations have been created, and there appears to be an imbalance between demand and supply of skilled manpower in certain areas. The participating countries emphasize planning for manpower requirements, and also the development of educational programmes which lead to the modernization of society on the one hand and the provision of a better livelihood for individuals on the other. The creation of positive attitudes to new occupations, love of labour, respect for workers and creation of a healthy environment for self-employment are included in the stated goals. Whereas most countries seem to be under pressure to increase productivity and employment through education, one includes the elimination of wasteful consumption among the economic goals of education.

Inter-action between belief and value systems and education goals

The participating nations have their belief systems reflected either in their professed faith in a particular religion or in the egalitarian principles proclaimed in their political constitutions. But the traditions, including the traditional educational institutions, have lost their impact in view of the rapidity of social change caused by technological and economic developments. The emerging political concept of Nationhood, with the Constitution of the country as the Master Guide, has influenced the shaping of education to the extent that political goals, followed by economic goals, are the determinants of educational policy-making, while spiritual and moral values occur more to provide for political ends. In this, education is being treated as an instrument for political stability and social transformation, and the traditional aims, such as pursuit of excellence, development of piety, propriety, righteousness, a sense of renunciation, and service to the suffering humanity, in the individual, are now being reframed to suit the social structure visualized by the political authority.

The participating nations are appreciative of their heritage, especially in the context of the belief systems which guided goal formulation in their indigenous systems, but at the same time, they ascribe social inequalities and lack of equal educational opportunities to the traditional systems. There is, therefore, a deliberate attempt to be selective in approach with regard to values for shaping future educational goals. Those values which foster co-operation for the common good are appreciated over those which discriminate between man and man, community and community in any society.

The interaction between value systems and educational goals is, in a way, leading Asian nations to provide education for 'identity', 'solidarity', 'security' and 'survival'. No doubt, the reasons and the circumstances are different and multifaceted. But the similarity lies in the attempt to integrate people as a nation, and, in many cases, the development of a common political outlook through education as a

major action. The next emphasis is to gear it to cope with industrial and technological advancements leading to economic productivity. In such a situation, the social and moral values are spelled out so as to merge with the political goals. As such, the present endeavour is to extend education to the masses as a result of state policies to create political and social equality, and also to develop manpower for productive pursuits at all levels.

If the historical context is viewed as recent history, there appears to be a high correlation between 'political stability' and 'continuity of educational goals'. Changes in political systems and even in power systems have eventually influenced educational goals, affecting educational progress to a considerable extent.

The process of decision making for educational goals depends upon the demographic, developmental features as well as the political set up of a country. In countries with homogenous populations and monolingual backgrounds, decision making tends to be centralized. The tendency here is to implement the central decisions. But in multiracial, multilingual and multireligious societies, decision making is often participatory and decentralized. It may be to create 'identity and solidarity' in the people and also to maintain equality of opportunity, relevance, flexibility and efficiency in the system. Decentralization, leading to individual freedom, is seen but is not in the mainstream, since the concept of 'self' is in the context of the defined position or function of the individual as a member of the society.

The educational goals in most of the participating countries are under the thrust of change, the focus being on developing relevant curriculum suited to the needs and aspirations of society. But in addition to internal interferences in goal formulation, like population growth, fanaticism, poverty, inflation, and lack of resources, there are also external pressures, like the influence of aid-giving agencies, recurrence of colonial legacies, and so on. Planned effort is sometimes considered as a means to solve such difficulties and confusions.

Whereas they should have been the bases of educational goal formulation, the value and belief systems are now used as a means for achieving goals, and people's participation for their own education is considered as a catalyst to achieving them. To optimize participation and to ensure goal achievement, the common school system is appearing as the new educational creed, or a mode of transacting equality of opportunity to all citizens of a nation. In this perspective, the beliefs, as social taboos, for the education of particular segments of the population are being negated, and provisions for additional services to the poorer and underprivileged sections are being made. This is obviously to create, through education, a homogeneity of value systems in the entire population of a nation.

The belief and the value systems are not the only determinants of the educational system. Scientific inventions,

international developments, industrial requirements weigh heavily on policy making in education. A new set of values for helping in the process of modernization of life, and aiming at improving the life style of the common man, is being sought. Even where such values have been identified, they have not yet been empirically tested through the curricula. In such a situation, there is a purposive quest for appropriate values.

Relating educational goals to education policies

The translation of educational goals into educational policies (and then into programmes and projects) is a sequential process reported by most countries. However, since educational goals are generally expressed in global terms, it is rare that a particular goal is covered by one specific educational policy. Rather, a cluster of policies would be needed to implement a given educational goal. A common feature in the country reports is to check a given education policy against the generative goal or goals for consistency. This is specially so because a given policy may serve to operationalize more than one goal.

Two educational goals stand out in the country reports as those for which concrete policies have been generated: equality of educational opportunities and education related to employment. In the case of the former (and particularly in the more recent educational policies), statements such as the following are common: increasing enrolment capacity of the existing educational system; universalization of education at the elementary level; and provision of literacy. Associated with these, a great variety of intervention policies has also been given prominance, such as the establishment of non-formal or part-time educational delivery systems, special facilities, opportunities, and incentives for disadvantaged groups, including women and girls, and compensatory actions, including those related to learning difficulties and malnutrition.

Expressing the goal of the educational systems' contribution to employment, all the countries have corresponding policies associated with degrees of skill development in the school system or of vocational orientation. Specific policies related to the provision of a smooth transition into the world of work in its totality are visible, as is also the introduction of socially useful productive work in one country and of life skills in another as part of the curriculum of general education. Related policies include those supportive of attitudinal changes towards work, including aspects of work ethics, responsibility, co-operative effort and rational use of resources, in particular the use of local resources. In the developed countries in the region this goal is reflected in educational policies which support the shift from an earlier economic development trend to a new one, such as from heavy industry to brain-intensive industry.

Other prominent examples of the translation of educational goals into educational policies are:

Goals related to:	Policies related to:
National integrity	National ideology National language
Quality improvement	Enhanced relevance of education; curriculum reform; teacher improvement; supportive education; research activities.
Efficiency and effectiveness	Improvement of the examination system; improvement of planning and management.
Learning society	Multiple delivery systems; establishment of resource centres.

There are some statements of goals, reported in the country papers, to which equivalent policy links seem as yet tenuous, as, for example, the goal of 'self-reliance'. In programmes and project activities, however, these are more clearly manifested and specified. Countries also mention programmes derived from new policies. In addition to specific activities related to policies, such as the provision of free tuition or books, and the strengthening of facilities for technical and vocational education, infrastructural development is also reported. Mention is made of such programmes as the establishment or strengthening of educational planning and research units, and decentralized educational management structures.

Establishing the selected, structured, sequenced, intended learning outcomes in formal or non-formal education is one of the major functions of curriculum development. These curriculum specifications form the basis for the various operations in the instructional and learning system. They form the final interface between the education delivery system and the learners. Naturally, therefore, many countries in the region have given considerable importance to curriculum development, and have attempted to reflect their goals and policies directly in the learning outcomes. As yet, however, comprehensive translation of all the goals and policies into learning outcomes has not been achieved in most countries. A determined effort in this direction is clearly visible in recent curriculum development efforts, expecially in those countries where education is integrated in practice into a socio-economic development strategy concentrated on the delivery of basic human needs. In these countries, direct links from goals to policies to learning outcomes are becoming increasingly unambiguous.

Function of the educational system in the framework of stated goals: problems and constraints

The country reports indicate that most countries in the region have identified and are conscious of some of the

deficiencies in the functioning of the educational system which prevent goals being implemented effectively, and are all in the process of developing new programmes and incentive systems, sometimes on an experimental basis, to attempt to correct this situation. However, as different countries perceive the origin of such constraints and bottlenecks at different levels of the decision-making process in education, there is a considerable diversity, in scope and focus, of such remedial action programmes and their critical point of entry in the total system. The following three categories of classification of constraints can be identified:

1. Constraints external to the educational system and those internal or inherent to it;
2. Constraints of a fundamental and global nature and pragmatic problems of policy implementation;
3. Problems identified at different dimensions of the educational development process, such as those of leadership, resource constraint, administration and organization, as well as pedagogical problems.

These three categories are neither strictly nor mutually exclusive. Still, the country reports give the impression that, while most of the external constraints are global and pedagogical in nature, requiring fundamental changes in the learning process and leadership roles in society, most of the internal problems are pragmatic in nature, connected with the delivery of the programmes facing sometimes serious organizational, resource and management constraints. These can, however, be overcome by concerted efforts in areas like resource mobilization, new organizational and management structures and incentive systems, and curriculum development.

Among the fundamental problems, a number of countries point to the fact that sometimes goals are formulated at a period in time when certain political ideologies are prominent, certain pressure groups in society are relatively forceful and certain ideas such as centralized management, participatory planning, or total learning strategies are popular. The time taken to arrive at a balanced consensus of these different forces is relatively long, and by the time policies are ready for implementation, the fragile consensus reached on ideologies of pressure groups and educational and management theories may have changed, thus creating problems of executing the plans and programmes in a conflicting situation. One country cites the example of a management process based on criteria of decentralization, aimed at creating diversity among educational institutions, but which in fact has led to uniformity of such institutions as they all attempt to imitate the most prestigious ones, in line with the values the population seem to attach to them. Other fundamental constraints, identified by a number of countries are:

1. Educational changes have often been much slower than the extremely swift changes in science and technology,

demographic and social structures, economic and political affairs and other dimensions of the educational environment. The imbalances and disparities between education and societies which lack an effective process of mutual adjustment and adaptation, risk cracking the frame of educational systems, and sometimes, even of society as a whole. In one country, the drastic and often violent historical changes in the political environment of education have all but destroyed the foundations of and faith in education and the accumulated human capital of nearly a complete generation, thus necessitating an almost total reconstruction of all learning processes in society;

2. The absence of careful and detailed research on the interrelationship between belief and value systems, conditions of the economy, and needs of the individual and society has resulted in an educational system which is not properly attuned to its setting, and cannot, therefore, be a truly national system. In this connection, the indiscriminate use of 'borrowed' rather than indigenous techniques, technologies and tools for preparing and guiding the process of educational change, has often led to alien, unadapted education and decision-making structures, irrelevant to the national situation and, therefore, often counter-productive;

3. A loss in the consciousness of basic values which used to guide the moral norms of daily life, combined with the influx of foreign civilization and unselective imitation has, in a number of countries in the region, led to relative confusion and disorder in society and has shaken the foundations of educational goals and policies. Other countries see the problems more as constraints in the implementation of goal areas and policies, which can be overcome by changes in incentive and reward systems, overriding bureaucratic and organizational obstacles, curriculum development based on the learning needs of the entire population, etc. As one country put it: "Changes are continually being made, not with respect to the goal, but rather the organization of the means by which the goal is to be accomplished. The goal is fixed, unalterable and, to some extent, even sacred. The means on the other hand are flexible, negotiable and can even be compromised if it is expedient to do so." Such 'pragmatic' constraints can be both external and internal in nature. Countries have cited the following examples:

External: Increase in popular aspirations for more education (social demand) does not necessarily mean that people want that type of education which is most likely to serve best their own future interests and that of national development. In this connection, programmes of vocationalization are often difficult to implement, and have often failed to gain proper interest among parents, mainly due to a lack of effective demand at appropriate wage rates for the output of the system. A truly learning society, with very flexible arrangements for learning opportunities of different groups and different ages, cannot be implemented unless the educational values underlying such a learning society are brought in line with the

values, norms and demand systems of the society as a whole. For example, the lack of a local, decentralized management structure in education, preventing popular participation and resource mobilization by the community, can only be overcome if the remnants of feudal tendencies in rural areas can be removed. The fostering of an administrative culture that believes in individuals and decentralization as well as in participatory management is only possible if the educational environment promotes similar value systems.

Internal: Such major goal areas in education as equality of opportunity, quality, relevance, and efficiency, are being hampered in their implementation by a number of factors within the educational systems, and the decision-making process of education itself. Most of these factors simultaneously have a negative impact on different goal areas. For example, the lack of leadership at the implementation level (both district and institutional), the discrepancy in management capability between central and regional officials, cumbersome official procedures and practices, the lack of functional and operational job descriptions of different categories of officials, and the scarcity of financial resources, educational facilities and qualified teachers, are directly affecting the efficiency of the system but will, in combination, also effect such goal areas as quality and equality. The problem of pedagogy, closely related to the relevance and usefulness of education to students, parents and society as a whole, is often difficult to solve because of the stranglehold of the examination system coupled with the linkage of job opportunities with performance in tests. In the sphere of economic relevance, difficulties in estimating future manpower needs for different combinations of skilled labour, and the absence of a mechanism and incentive system for providing skill education involving both schools and private industry, further complicate these issues. But, as mentioned above, these problems can and are being overcome gradually through research, development, experimentation and programmes of remedial action.

Processes and mechanisms of decision-making within the framework of educational development

An analysis of the country reports reveal that, by and large, educational decision making is centralized mostly at the federal and provincial level with bureaucratic controls. In one country, where policy decisions are discussed on the basis of widespread participation, the act of policy formulation and execution is centrally manifested, and bureaucratic controls apply throughout the implementation process. In that country, however, a conflict based on ideology may continue to exist despite the apparent consensus, and this affects efficient decision making and policy implementation.

In all participating countries the infrastructure for educational decision making exists. For example, in one country, decisions on all aspects of educational planning and policy are taken by the Educational Planning Committee

(EPC), a high-powered body with the Education Minister as its chairman and the Director of Educational Planning and Research as its secretary. In another country a Central Advisory Board of Education has been set up with the Union Education Minister as its chairman and Education Ministers of all provinces, including some eminent educationists, as its members.

The country reports indicate that while there is adequate leadership at the policy formulation level, considerable strengthening is needed at the implementation level, both field and institutional.

In almost all the countries the research and information base of decision making in education appears to be weak. Only one country reports that decisions to introduce educational reforms are often taken on the basis of pilot studies. This process, though time-consuming and inadequate for finding immediate solutions to pressing problems, provides an opportunity to test new educational changes before they are launched on a countrywide scale. The same country reports further that existing educational practices are monitored and evaluated continuously, so that decision makers are provided with information in areas in which immediate actions are needed. Monitoring and evaluation have, however, sometimes become ends in themselves so that very little follow-up action is possible to improve existing practices on the basis of evaluation findings.

A noticeable trend, evident from the country reports, is that decision-making structures and processes, as well as content, in these countries, are preparing to undergo decentralization by involving concerned interest groups in the formulation of educational policies and programmes and their implementation.

Future vision of educational goals and policies

The participating countries, most of whom are developing nations, have formulated their educational goals in the recent past. In some cases, they have established linkages between belief systems and value systems and educational goals. No major change in national educational goals has, therefore, been visualized, but there is an expressed desire to redefine these goals more precisely in operational terms, so that specific educational policies could result. Almost all the nations have expressed their anxiety to develop suitable strategies for the translation of educational goals into educational policies with a knowledge and skill base in their respective societies. Some are considering a reformulation of their curricula - its content, methodology and process of development - so as to achieve the desired national goals. Some propose to achieve this through experimentation and innovations, emphasizing educational research. The priority need of the countries is to decentralize educational efforts with a view to achieving equality of opportunity, quality, relevance, efficiency and effectiveness.

Looking to the goals of social equality and economic development, the participating countries are in search of alternatives in education. As one of the recent developments, non-formal education is visualized as an important alternative to formal schooling, especially in those societies where the formal system has not been able to attract and hold the target populations. It is envisioned that non-formal education would ultimately converge with formal education and the two together would be complementary to each other, thus developing to a level of equal status, and providing life-long education. In the same way, the various educational systems, aiming to achieve their national and educational goals, will have to be geared to multi-pronged approaches so as to solve problems of equality of opportunity in education, education for rural development, vocational education, and to provide for general information, skills and attitudes. It is expected that these multi-pronged approaches will further generate education at decentralized levels, based on local specific situations suited to the learning interests of the particular groups and sub-groups of the population, adults as well as children.

The countries all have their own management systems. They express the need for the training of key level personnel for development and management of education. The desire of participating countries is to develop educational goals and policies to suit the manpower needs of their respective societies, to strike a balance between tradition and progress, and to inculcate desirable attitudes and values through the process of education. Such future directions have their implications for humanizing educational administration on the one hand, and making educational planning a generic process on the other.

Regional and international co-operation

The participating countries show their eagerness to gain from each other's experiences. There are common problems and issues in many educational matters in the region, particularly those related to cultural, demographic and developmental aspects. The national educational systems in most of these countries are trying to emerge from traditional or colonial pasts. The present effort is to reform their educational systems to make them relevant to meet the educational needs. It is visualized that exchange of experiences at various points of time will be of help in the developmental activities of member states.

In the guidelines circulated by Unesco for the preparation of country papers, the countries were requested to rank suggested mechanisms/instruments for regional and international co-operation. Considering weights assigned by a number of countries to various mechanics, the overall ranking in order of priority is as follows:

Mechanisms/Instruments	Rank
Technical workshops	I
Information exchange (net work)	II
Research and development (comparative studies)	III
Training, study, tours, etc.	IV
Country studies in depth	V
Publications	VI
Policy evaluation panels	VII
Advisory services (expertise consultations)	VIII
Simulation exercises	IX

A specific suggestion was made in the country reports that since the Asian countries have a rich cultural heritage and specific needs of their own, in-depth studies may be conducted to identify research and action programmes for evolving new educational models which would suit the needs of the member countries of the Asian Region. To initiate this activity, consultative panels may be set up.

Countries elaborated on their proposals for future co-operation in education during the workshop, and this is reflected in the final chapter of this report.

Chapter Two

BELIEF SYSTEMS, ETHICAL VALUES AND EDUCATIONAL GOALS

Every society, whatever its level of complexity, has a system of institutions to socialize its members; to give them knowledge, values, attitudes, skills which will make them recognizably a part of that society and culture. The medium of transmission of these aspects may be mainly through the home and non-formal channels in pre-literate societies, but as society develops, institutional transmission, through established structures such as the church and school, becomes the main instrument.

Educational goals are value-oriented. They constitute the ends towards which educational endeavours are directed. They have to be understood in relation to the specific values underlying them. These values often have a strong ethical and utopian flavour.

The nature of belief systems, ethical values, cultural traditions and their contributions to educational goals in the Third World countries of the region may be considered in the context of the stage of development of these countries and their prime aspirations - to become nations with an identity of their own, and to reach beyond poverty to a better quality of life. Comparisons are made with the First and Second World, which have attained both nationhood and have removed abject poverty. Industrialization is regarded as the key to this transformation. For industrialization, there must be the prerequisites of science and technology. Hence, imitation of the First or Second World is often the striving explicitly or implicitly visible in national goals. Further, the Third World aspires to social transformation, including modernization and the removal of stark inegalitarianism.

These aspirations appear in the national goals and plans and, therefore, also in the educational goals and plans. The aspirations, goals, plans, and particularly their implementation, have to exist and function in a complex ecology of belief systems, ethical values and cultural traditions, some of ancestral origin, and some generated by more 'modern' considerations. It is, therefore, necessary to consider the basic mainsprings of the belief and value systems in the Third World countries of the region - systems that have prevailed from great antiquity and still exist to a great measure in the traditional environment of these nations together with the 'modern' systems.

While developing countries in the region do have remarkably different cultural traditions, there are also outstanding limitations in their ancestral belief and value systems. These may be compared with the basic and fundamental

belief and value systems in industrial societies as they have developed from about the 18th century. The comparison is important because countries in the Third World are striving to reach the industrial stage in the quickest possible time, and have already incorporated some of these values from the First and Second World as components of their 'modern' value systems.

In ancestral times, the belief and value systems were based upon the twin metaphysical foundations of 'Transcendence of Man' and 'Surrender to God' (or, in Buddhism, extinguishing of the Ego). While reason existed, there were aspects that went beyond pure reason. Man was not master of the universe. These foundations are present in Hinduism, Islam, Christianity, Buddhism, Confucionism, Shintoism and in all the other religious and philosophies that emanated from traditional times.

The value foundations of the industrial era, on the other hand, are not metaphysical. They too are born of twin conceptual frameworks - reason and rationality, and the mastery of man over nature.

The direct consequences of the traditional metaphysical frameworks were such attributes as faith, self-discipline, reverence for nature and life, non-acquisition, non-consumer orientation. From riches to rags, from worldly living to renunciation were the ideals that were venerated. Parallel consequences of the industrial conceptual frameworks are reason (hence faith disappears), conquest and exploitation of nature (man being the master), greed, consumer orientation, self-indulgence. Rags to riches forms the ideal to be followed.

No doubt there were and are many individuals in the Third World who do not in the least portray the values indicated above for the traditional era, as there have been, and are, many individuals who indeed live by the opposite of the values derived from the fundamental frameworks of the industrial era.

Nevertheless, as reason and rationality replace faith, and Man the Master replaces transcendence and surrender, the values and ethics indicated above are logical products of the consequences of replacement of faith, surrender, and transcendence, and of the emergence of the Mastery of Man, and goals, policies, plans all are influenced by these values. These values become incorporated in strategies of development.

Not only 'high' ethical and value frameworks exist in the traditional environments. Poverty, disease, inequality, ignorance were and are also rampant. Hence, values other than transcendental values and ethics existed in such societies. There must have been values and ethics that supported the continuation of social injustice and poverty. In industrial societies, economic poverty may have disappeared, but other forms of poverty of the human spirit remain. Illiteracy may have disappeared, but ignorance of peace and equanimity remain. Inequalities, too, still remain, though the range may have been somewhat foreshortened.

Both in the developed world and in the Third World, perhaps from different motivations, a search is visible, though still limited to a few, for alternatives to the present situation in the developed world. The need for limits to consumption and growth are being voiced. Common motivations also exist in the two Worlds, such as those arising from pollution, and the small tolerance range of the ecology of the Planet Earth, finiteness of the irreplacable resources, social tensions, personal tensions, and the unhappiness and loneliness which the developed world value frameworks seem to have produced.

The various alternative models of development have different attributes, but, again, common attributes are also visible - mainly in the area of ethics, values and beliefs. Included in these aspects are complementary faith and religion, and science and philosophy, equality, freedom, social justice, respect for individual differences, democracy, and reverence to nature, limits to production and consumption. These values are also beginning to appear in the development concepts and theories of the industrialized world.

As yet, no developing country in the Third World has explicitly stated national goals or educational goals that provide evidence of a comprehensive 'Third World alternative' to the developed world. Nevertheless, values like equity and social justice do appear in goals of most countries in the region.

Goals stated at any given time reflect at best the meaning given to beliefs and values at that time. Countries often do not appear clear about value and belief systems, as seen from the internal contradictions and inconsistencies which appear in statements of national goals and educational goals incorporating these aspects. Nevertheless, countries in the region are making a start in stating explicitly, in their educational goals, selected belief and value systems coherent with their developmental national goals, such as, for example, values related to learning and productive work, or education and national identity, including the value tolerance. Even new terminologies are visible in these statements of educational goals attempting to indicate greater operational clarity for these beliefs and values. The statements of goals in some countries may not specifically indicate value systems, but plans and programmes do imply such values. Expanding educational opportunities, special women's programmes, are examples where implied value systems such as equity, democracy, egalitarianism are present.

The value and belief systems have profound though indirect influences on all goal formulations, but particularly on implementation. Generally, the formulation of national goals is done at a political level, and the overwhelming consideration is given to political, social and economic dimensions, according to the philosophies and strategies adopted for development by different countries.

Since educational goals are derived from national goals, and are intended to support the attainment of such goals, undoubtedly these have political, social, and economic dimensions which have a significant influence. If belief systems, ethical values and religious traditions have not first influenced the national goal formulations, they would only indirectly influence the formulation of educational goals.

Poverty, ignorance, exploitation, social injustice, inequality existed unabated for centuries in spite of, or perhaps because of, certain components of the value and ethical frameworks in traditional society. Thus these components of value systems, which still continue to exist in the Third World, would continue to obstruct the newer goals of equity, social justice and social transformation.

Education is both a transmitter and preserver of cultural and social traditions. For national identity and cultural continuity, learners have to be placed in a cultural and historical perspective. In this respect belief systems, ethical values, religious traditions, cultural norms not only influence educational goals, but are also included as such in them. On the other hand, education is an agent for change. In this role, it becomes a disrupter of beliefs and traditions which need to be disrupted and extinguished in the interest of national goals of change and development. This dialectical relationship of education to social change should be kept in view in the formulation of goals.

In some countries of the region, there is specific reference to value and belief systems, such as religious aspects, in goals of education. In certain other countries secularism is included as a part of national and educational goals. Religious values in education may be considered important, especially in countries where a single dominant religion is present. Adequate safeguards for the rights of minorities are, however, essential. In countries which advocate secularism, there is, nevertheless, a strong emphasis on ethical goals.

The possibility always exists of religious values, or, for that matter, any value system in education, being utilized to protect the special privileges of elitest groups or other vested interests. This is often done through the promotion of conveniently selective values to be inculcated through educational systems. Religion as practised, as opposed to precepts, can often be inconsistent with and contrary to national goals and aspirations as well as to educational goals. Such religious practices or behaviour are not even consistent with the true interpretation of the concerned religions themselves. The need exists for appropriate assessment of religious traditions and a critical analysis of and continuous reinterpretation of religious values in accordance with the changing developments in society. There has been very little searching analysis of religious traditions in the countries of the region. Considering the very rich traditions in this domain, such studies, with appropriate methodologies are likely to contribute significantly to greater understanding in the formulation

of educational goals and their relation to belief-value systems.

Religious and cultural traditions, particularly the latter, do change with time - but the rate of change is much slower than that to which learners are subject, even in the least developed countries in the region. Selection of religious or cultural values in this context would need to enhance the competencies in learners to manage such change, or at least not hinder the development of such competencies.

Whatever the practices of religion may be, a variety of values and precepts for behaviour that may have relevance in the context of educational goals do exist in the traditional ethics of many cultures in the region. Some of these are reverence of nature, self-discipline, avoidance of greed and acquisition. These same precepts for behaviour may also be derived from the logic of scientific thinking. Derived from the rapid dwindling of irreplaceable natural resources would emanate the very same precepts for behaviour as indicated above.

Cultural values should be considered together with social and economic values. Any segregation of these might not be realistic in view of their strong interaction. This is also true of religious values, but whereas these have strong emotional and political implications, it is often easier to deal with cultural values in education, though this is not true of all cultural values. Some, - for example, language, - have the same emotional implications as religious values.

Education is a disruptive force in the sense that it can alienate the students from their community, and create rural - urban, tribal - non-tribal, educated - non-educated, and other, dichotomies. While some changes in socio-cultural values are necessary as the logical consequences of progress, it is important to avoid mindless disruption and destruction of useful cultural traditions and institutions. Educational goals should aim at the preservation and fostering of the cultural traditions of the respective nations, consistent with their national goals.

The fostering of science and technology and its application is an important educational goal in all countries of the region, especially in the context of modernization. Science and technology have to be put to proper use and should subserve the broader cultural and social values of these nations. A special aspect to be looked for is that science and technology have intrinsic logical consequences, and the values which go with them have to be accepted. A particular technology might necessitate certain values. The consequences of this cannot be circumvented without giving up the technology itself. The role of appropriate technology becomes a vital consideration in this connection.

The development of science and technology is closely linked to requirements of defence on the one hand, and of

modern industry on the other. The requirements of defence are often the prime mover in the development of science and technology. Sophisticated technologies needed for defence can only be avoided if alternative security measures are available to countries within the framework of a New International Economic Order. The fostering of science and technology in the service of mankind is an important educational goal which needs to be especially stressed in this context.

Another aspect of the current value belief system related to the increasing aspirations of the people is consumerism. Consumerist tendencies are everywhere on the increase, as a result of the 'demonstration effect' from styles of living in developed countries, and also of elite groups within developing countries. Efforts to insulate societies against consumerist tendencies have only met with some success for a limited period of time. Consumerism is a part of human nature. It is one of the needs in the hierarchy of human needs, and has to be reckoned with as such. On the other hand, the capacity to rise above consumerism is also part of human nature. The specific issue for educational goal-setting is whether to encourage tendencies towards consumerism or tendencies towards voluntary limitation of wants, without at the same time romanticizing poverty. There is an immediate need for the restriction of consumerist tendencies among elite groups both in the developing countries and among developed nations, so that the world's basic resources are conserved.

The formulation of educational goals has to take into account not only the immediate requirements of various societies, but also the ultimate evolution of man in the 21st century. The core of educational goals needs to be related to this ultimate ideal. Every value and belief system derived from religions or from secular philosophies, had a picture of the Ideal Man towards which it required conformity. In this sense education will be required to conform to its conception of Ideal Man. Conformity to this ideal does not mean uniformity. Cultural diversity and individuality in societies need to be fostered through appropriate educational goals.

Despite these differences among nations, an interdependent world is a reality today, and this interdependency will certainly intensify with time. Educational goals need to emphasize basic human values such as justice, rationalism, 'this-worldness', freedom, self-discipline, faith and reason. Educational goals need to reflect the beliefs and values inherent in education as a function, such as self-reflection, critical thinking and development of individual potentials, taking full account of individual differences.

Countries in the region are making a start in stating explicitly, in their educational goals, belief and value systems coherent with their developmental national goals. Even new terminologies, which attempt to provide greater classification of these consistent belief and value systems, are visible. The rational search for appropriate educational goals is particularly important in this decade when answers

have to be found in the continuing search for alternatives in education and development. Both developed and developing nations have been compelled to initiate this in the last few years, mainly on account of a clash of values. The developing countries of the Third World need not imitate the models of developed countries, which themselves are under strain and are being critically reassessed. In any case, while such imitations may look impressive, it too often happens that resources are not available for such imitation to proceed beyond a preliminary stage, leading to acute frustration. It is here that long-standing experience and traditions, with their richness and variety, are of particular value, not only within the region but also beyond it.

Chapter Three

EDUCATIONAL GOALS AND THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

A major contemporary preoccupation of Member States in the Asian region is development. During the 1960's the focus was on economic development. However, this has been called in question in recent years, and while the key importance of economic development is recognized, there is greater appreciation of the political, social and cultural aspects of development. The concept of development is taken in its widest possible meaning, which includes political, cultural, social and economic dimensions. It covers elements of growth, improved distribution of assets, and structural change; it relates to characteristics of the individual (e.g. basic needs, human rights etc.) as well as of the society.

The problem area before the workshop was analyzed from two angles which are closely interrelated, namely, interdependence among nations (New International Economic Order), and power relations within nations. Both these forces determine to a large extent the effectiveness of educational policies in reaching development objectives.

According to the present World Order, the 20 per cent of the world population living in the developed world has control over 80 per cent of the world's resources, whereas the 80 per cent of the world population living in the developing countries controls 20 per cent of the world's resources. This basic inequality is reflected in each country of the developed as well as the developing world, where the elites exercise power in all sectors of society, including education. Each society is affected by the following three power groups:

1. State and the bureaucracy, which identifies itself with the political elite;
2. The corporate sector (traders, merchants, groups of industrialists, etc.); and
3. The university system (as elite sometimes in close harmony with the political elite).

In most countries in the region these three sectors join forces and, as a minority, rule the rest of the society. Lack of equity in the International Economic Order is closely related to a lack of equality at the national level. We need to introduce greater equality within the nation and in the International Economic Order simultaneously. Education has a significant role to play in this. Programmes like universal elementary education, adult education, equal access to secondary and university education are forces which, in the long run, can assist in promoting equality within the country.

In fact, we can observe in many countries of the region a shift in policy towards the priorities indicated above. However, such policies will not succeed unless economic and political action is also being taken at the same time. If the society continues to be unequal, any attempt to provide educational equality is not likely to succeed. Therefore, countries will have to make an effort on both fronts at once. This implies a focus on basic needs as a main strategy for development. Equality means, in economic terms, the guarantee of a basic minimum to every individual, complemented by some limits to be set by the elites for themselves. This is essentially an economic and political decision. In order to provide a minimum for everyone and to prevent anyone from going beyond a certain maximum, such a decision is a vital factor in achieving equity. Educational programmes must be in line with such action in order to achieve both equality and social justice.

In the economic sphere, the target, set by the international community, that by the year 2000 the developing countries would get a 25 per cent share of the world's industrial output, is not likely to be reached. This target can only be realized if, at the international level, simultaneous steps are taken to ensure that the developing countries, largely producers of raw materials, get better prices for their products and a larger share in the transfer of technology. Concrete economic and political action is needed at the international level to see that the disparity within nations is reduced.

The target that industralized nations set aside 1 per cent of their GNP for aid to the developing countries is far from being reached; it is in fact less than half per cent. Equally important is the transfer of resources on a much larger scale, better access to markets, and better prices for products. But international action must go hand in hand with national efforts. Every country has to see that it provides justice and equality to its people. No developing country has a moral right to plead for greater equality in the International Economic Order unless it seriously aims at equality within its own society. Otherwise the plea for an International Order is really a half-hearted question. Equality must start at home. The role of education in this, and the reflection of these issues in the interaction of national goals and education goals, can only be decided by each developing country itself. This includes a critical self-assessment of shortcomings in this area.

An analysis of socio-economic and educational provisions for disadvantaged groups in society is an urgent necessity in this. Improving the status of women, giving them equality not only in theory but in practice in the form of equal access to education, is likely to accomplish a very important social change. Promoting through education, economic and other socio-cultural means, social cohesion and equal opportunities for minority groups in society, is another important social change to be aimed at. The traditional beliefs and distinct cultures of these groups which, on the surface, do not seem to be useful for modernization, still form part of the social

fabric of many countries in the region. There is a need for carefully balanced strategies of social change, enhancing not only the economic but also the cultural and political potentials of these minority groups. The main question which arises is to what extent the educational system is providing for these changes, and what are its shortcomings in this respect? On the political side, the feudal and monarchical traditions in Asia have to be replaced gradually by democratic traditions in which the average person has a much greater say. In most countries of the region, political power is still unequally distributed, and such areas as adult education and universal education, through which political awareness is created in all population groups, become a priority.

There are three major powers operating in society - money power, political power, and knowledge power. All these support each other, and therefore efforts to distribute them more equally are difficult to realize. Education should support those changes which would distribute them more equally. However, in most countries, the supporter of the status group, the elite, retains a monopoly of these three powers. Education as it has developed over the last 100 years, has offered more facilities and opportunities to the richer and well-to-do strata of society, while the poorer strata continue to be deprived of access to learning. Privileged groups benefit first from all the educational facilities that society provides, and when education expands and becomes richer in content, this same group profits most. Why does education support the status quo, and what types of processes in education would be able to break through this vicious circle so that it can promote social change in the desired direction? These are the major issues to be considered.

Discussion framework

Before discussing each of the sub-items of agenda item 4, both groups felt that it is the interaction of the different dimensions of the educational and development process which promotes or hampers social change and, in this connection, basic issues became a focus of the discussions.

In this connection, the following conceptual framework, characterizing different development dimensions and forces in society, was found useful in delineating its interaction with educational goals and policies.

Education Development

Force / Dimension	Growth	Redistribution	Change
Economic	e.g. Technology Manpower	e.g. Income distribution	e.g. Industrialization Land reform
Socio-political	e.g. Nation building Unity Self-reliance	e.g. Equity	e.g. Participation Decentralization
Cultural	e.g. Identity	e.g. Access; Focus on minorities	e.g. Language policy
Individual	e.g. Knowledge Survival-skills		e.g. Human values, attitudes norms

The consideration of this framework of development, to which educational processes can be related, might eventually lead to inter-disciplinary strategies aimed at an improved efficiency of the educational system both externally and internally. In goal formulation, one can observe a gradual move away from economic growth in the direction of re-distribution and structural changes, increasingly including socio-political and cultural areas as well as greater focus on the needs of the individual. However, while there might thus be a shift of emphasis in goal formulation from the upper left to the lower right boxes of the above matrix, in the practice of resource allocation (especially in view of the increased resource constraints of the last few years), more economic considerations seem to be taking precedence.

Conceptual issues

Global: In the definition of the process of development, the distinction between developed and developing nations is at present essentially based on GNP, and does not take into account other factors such as culture, in which the so-called developing countries in the region are far more developed than the so-called developed countries of the first and second worlds. There is already a search for endogenous indicators of development and this needs to be supported by the developed nations. The inadequacy of GNP as an indicator of development is illustrated by the fact that while the equivalence of one month's salary is enough to build a house with culturally acceptable basic amenities in certain rural areas of the region, in developed countries with much higher levels of income, the equivalent of even a year's salary is far from adequate for the purpose.

Dynamics: Education and development are dynamic concepts, and their interaction varies from time to time. Decision-making processes relating the two concepts will necessarily change, and, therefore, will be difficult to analyze in any static framework. Countries, emerging out of a traditional stranglehold, often imitate life-styles, concepts and tools of development borrowed from industrialized countries, and educational programmes and policies often follow the same path. It is now realized that these concepts are not suited to the indigenous needs and resources of these countries. Now, even in the West, a disillusionment with the economic path of development has set in because of a whole set of factors like pollution, deprivation of resources, and so on.

Interdisciplinarity: It is accepted that development does not only mean growth in the national product (although such growth is an important part of development). Nor does it mean only economic development. It certainly means an improvement in the quality of life, and it includes enhanced equity, social justice, better employment and self-reliance. In this way development will relate to economic growth and improved distribution of assets, to structural changes that will permit participation by the masses to access to education, culture, communication, to human rights and freedoms, to international understanding and the New International Economic Order.

There can be at least two possible explanations for the fact that economic development appears to be receiving lesser attention in the formulation of educational goals and policies. Either the other (social, cultural) dimensions are felt to be increasingly more important or worthy of receiving more attention, or (and this is more likely) the gradual turning away from the economic development goals of education reflect a disillusionment with economic tools, like manpower planning, which have proved to be imperfect for guiding educational development.

Endogeneity: The mainsprings of individual or national development have to be from within each individual and each nation. This recognition is illustrated by the gradual introduction in the development dialogue of concepts like population dynamics, basic human needs, and harmonious development of the individual, as key stones to any balanced macro-development process. But the concept of development will vary according to the specific requirements of each society and its stage of development. On the one hand, such development has to arise from the felt needs. But felt needs alone are not an adequate guide. A villager of a community might find the existing situation acceptable, and yet there may be a need to create an awareness for modern work, greater productivity, greater sanitation, greater nutrition, and more progress sparked by self-volition. Development also requires the application of superior science and technology for the removal of both social and economic backwardness. Development must be related to the needs that arise from within the community on the one hand, and to national goals on the other.

Learning resources: In the area of functioning of the education system proper, a number of concepts and processes have not yet been sufficiently analyzed and, therefore, their interaction with development processes are still imperfect. For example, the concept of a learning society has not yet been internalized in the social systems of most countries of the region and, therefore, a goal area like 'educational integration with other social institutions' remains relatively imprecise. Educational processes do not lie outside the social process of development, but are very much a part of it. Education within development rather than education for development is the issue at stake. The educational process is a lifetime process and should move away from book-learning, or something to be received within the four walls of the formal school system, in the direction of learning as part and parcel of the social fabric. This implies the mobilization of learning resources of other than educational institutions for learning purposes.

Socio-economic development and basic human needs

Manpower and employment: Education contributes to the economic process at two points: in terms of the development of scientific and technical manpower, and in terms of growth of scientific and technological knowledge.

While technical and vocational education are important instruments for scientific and technological change and, therefore, indirectly for economic development, the expansion of education, especially at the secondary vocational level and sometimes at the higher levels, can also result in the production of cheap labour, either for large multi-nations operating at the national level or for the export of human capital to those countries which require those skills. As a remedial strategy, instead of the educational system concentrating on providing industrial skills, it must strike a balance between skill development and the teaching of entrepreneurship, thus facilitating the creation of self-employment. This balance should also result in an increased focus on 'learning how to learn', a function of the school system, and 'on-the-job training', a responsibility to be shared by the private sector.

Certain types of vocational and agricultural education tend to be disfunctional, as they alienate graduates from their immediate environment by fostering expectations and aspirations which cannot be fulfilled by the economic environment. This is especially true in rural areas, where educated manpower cannot be absorbed easily. This has resulted in large-scale migration of the rural population to the cities, giving rise to urban slums and poverty as well as adding to the stock of cheap labour which can be exploited by the multinationals. The structural changes which have occurred in the economic systems, from agricultural societies towards industrial and modernized societies, have been paralleled by structural changes in the educational system, mainly in the direction of the vocationalization of general, technical and professional education. However, the outputs of these schools

cannot always be absorbed by the working places created by the economy, leading to problems of educated unemployment, underemployment and mis-employment. At present there are no or few incentive systems in society to correct these imbalances, as certificates still seem to be providing the best access to jobs and existing salary scales fail to attract graduates to places where they are most needed.

Basic human needs: As regards the definition of basic human needs, education itself should be considered a basic need in addition to other needs. At the same time, the exclusive emphasis of the basic need concept on material needs only is not acceptable. Young people brought up in ideologies which emphasize purely material needs feel a vacuum, and the fulfilment of spiritual needs only after the fulfilment of material needs is not correct, for the poor and materially deprived also have spiritual needs. At the same time, fulfilment of material needs assume primary importance for the very poor and very hungry, and in this connection Mahatma Gandhi remarked that even God dares not appear to the hungry except in the form of bread. The word 'spiritual' in this context means the need for some ideals, and does not necessarily have any metaphysical or transcendental connotations. To meet basic human needs, a certain level of structural development of the economy is necessary, for which education has to provide requisite attitude, skills and knowledge. The development of the required basic economic structure, however, demands certain broader commitments to the goals of society and the community. Very often the commitment is to the politics of short-term and group gains, which sometimes goes against the needs of development. This situation is worsened by the fact that there are power structures within each society which control both the economy and education, and obstruct efforts to meet the basic human needs of the weaker and the deprived sections of society.

Equity, social justice and social change

At the goal formulation level: The realization that, within the process of development, distribution is as important a dimension as is pure growth to meet the equity goal for all population groups in society, has led educational policies to move increasingly in the direction of universal access to education, and to place more emphasis on the needs of the under-privileged. While concepts of social redistribution and equity have thus gained importance at the policy formulation stage, in practice, socio-economic pressure groups have still continued to favour patterns of resource allocation to those educational institutions from which mainly the elites are benefiting.

Education by itself can achieve very little in changing the power structures of society, and even if desirable goals are being formulated, these will not be implemented if they are not acceptable to the power groups. Studies of

dropouts, transition ratios, public subsidies to students at various educational levels and other indicators, show the extent of inegalitarianism of education systems in most countries in the region, and reflect closely the inequality of the social, economic, and political systems. Indeed, these systems reinforce themselves, and the major beneficiaries of all the systems are the same - the elites. The common people are marginalized. Educational facilities have too often in the past been appropriated by the privileged groups, and this situation can only be corrected to some extent by ensuring that education is given sufficient autonomy. Education has an intrinsic power to bring about social change despite the power structures. If appropriately designed, it can speed up the process of desirable change which, in any case, is bound to occur.

At the policy implementation level: Statements of national goals as well as of educational goals generally include provisions to enhance equity and social justice, and to bring about social change, but very rarely are these statements reflected in implementable policies. Education can contribute to the policies of equity and social justice in two ways. First, equity and social justice are direct educational goals, shown in certain policies which focus on adult education, scholarships for the needy, and special provision for backward areas. Secondly, education has an incidental effect on social equity in terms of its content and methodology. Another way in which education contributes to social change is through enhanced social mobility. This is particularly so in Asian countries. But social change and equity are not obtained by mere declaration of policies, nor by provisions and allocations. The existing system is such that the privileged groups often corner the benefits in one way or another. From this point of view the educational content has a crucial role to play in ensuring that the benefits of education as well as of development do reach the deprived, the poor and the backward. This means building up the capabilities of the poor.

In this connection, serious attempts are under way to provide multiple entry in the school system as well as to synchronize and adjust school hours and school vacations to suit the time budget of farmers. Besides this, a shift is noticeable towards supplementing formal schooling with a non-traditional approach to education, in the form of adult education and out-of-school education for population groups that either missed schooling or dropped out. While high priority is given in policy statements to non-traditional programmes by several governments, this is still insufficiently reflected in any increases in budgetary allocations for these purposes.

Efficiency: The concept of efficiency, derived from economics, is, if applied in a narrow sense, less and less

functional in measuring how the educational system can best serve the learning needs of all population groups in society. In a decade where modern technology and mass media greatly influence the learning process in a society, a new efficiency index has to be constructed. For example, the teaching of mathematics, in a decade when desk calculators are within easy reach, should focus more on the understanding of mathematics than on the application of mathematical skills per se. In another area, the operationalization of a policy of equal access to education can no longer be guided in efficiency on the basis of averages, which base budget allocations on enrolment increases alone. It must take into account the increased unit cost of students belonging to the disadvantaged and isolated groups in society, which are more difficult to reach through the educational system.

The political environment: Development should be participatory. The goals of development should be decided by individuals and communities who are consulted not only in the process of defining goals but also in the implementation, keeping always in view that individual and local rights must be balanced with the rights of the community. Education goals should be considered in the light of the wider and evolving definition of development, and contribute to all aspects of the development process, from the formulation of development goals to their implementation.

Equity and social justice must, by deliberate design, be included in the educational effort to raise the conscience of the elite groups. Politicians who have the power of decision making are influenced by the general opinions prevailing in the community. In this sense also, education has a role in opinion formation and in influencing the decision makers.

Goal setting should not be decided by technicians and professionals alone, but, with their assistance, by the people. This requires on the one hand orientation of the people, and on the other, orientation of the technicians, planners and policy makers.

The poor alone have never organized revolutions. It has generally been the task of the intelligentsia to provide the leadership. Education can also ensure equity and social justice through its influence on the educated classes and the intelligentsia. The term 'power structure' is not necessarily pejorative. There must be a power structure in any given social organization, and the abolition of one power structure only leads to another. However, there must be different degrees of diffusion among power structures, and some power structures must be more enlightened than others in the sense that they are more geared to the welfare of the nation and the welfare of the people, especially the poor and deprived. Education of the elites constituting the power structure is an important component of educational goals.

While educational goals reflect some of the dimensions of the social development process, the political development of the individual and the community has been practically ignored.

The majority of countries in the region have been hesitant in preparing people to participate in political processes in a sustained manner. As a practical example, the role of teaching languages, which is a vital tool for communication and therefore facilitates the participation of citizens in decision making processes, has been often neglected by the educational system. Also the management principal of decentralization, which is increasingly seen as an effective tool for achieving some of the equity objectives of education, is, in fact, difficult to realize because of a lack of political awareness and participation.

Cultural identity and cultural development

Goal areas such as nationalism, pride, preservation of cultural heritage, cultural cohesion, integrity, and other dimensions of cultural growth have become more and more prominent. However, the educational means and policies by which to achieve these goals are very different from country to country. In some countries the cultural identity and cultural diversity goals are adequately reflected in the national constitution, as well as in the educational provisions which guarantee them. This has sometimes led to fissiparous tendencies among religious and cultural minority groups, even reaching the extreme of separatism. In other countries, efforts are made to integrate the minority groups into the mainstream of national life by providing uniformity in educational content and structures. 'Assimilation' as a policy for national integration can, however, at times be contrary to the goal of preservation of cultural identities.

In the attempt to develop national cohesion, what is good in the diverse cultures and traditions of communities and tribes within a nation must not be lost. This means a conscious effort at cultural development. The local forms of music, folk, arts and other cultural media should be specifically fostered and encouraged, though there is always a need to balance national integrity with the cultural identity of smaller groups. Preservation of this cultural identity is justified not only in terms of the ultimate contribution to the common good (which would be the utilitarian justification), but also in terms of the basic rights and fundamental freedoms of these groups (which would be a justification from the point of view of equity and justice). Indeed, this development of culture should reach beyond awareness of the multiple cultures present in a country, to the enhancement of opportunities for mass participation in cultural life and the development of endogenous cultural activities.

One of the processes in incorporating cultural goals in the context of development is the reality that transfer of knowledge, and processes of development that emanate from different cultures, are needed for economies to be modernized. It is essential that countries study closely the conditions under which such transfers may be affected while respecting cultural identities, avoiding cultural domination, and utilizing existing cultural modes. Such studies will be important in assisting in the formulation of educational goals related to cultural development.

However, one participant pointed out that while cultural development is necessary and should be fostered, sooner or later, in a shrinking world, there will be one common culture, namely, the human culture. Cross-cultural winds are blowing too strongly for cultural identities to be preserved in isolation. In this sense, the pursuit of a separate cultural identity for each nation may be considered a lost cause. Education must accept this reality and must emphasize humanistic culture cutting across national boundaries.

Human rights, fundamental freedoms and individual development

Human rights and fundamental freedoms have found their way into the educational goals and policies of many countries in the region. They must now find increasing manifestation in the implementation of these goals and policies, through priority setting, programming and curriculum development.

Education should also contribute to individual development. In the anxiety to link education to several other societal goals such as socio-economic development, equity, justice, and international understanding, it should not be forgotten that it is through the development of the individual and his potentialities that education gains its significance and makes its contribution. This is too often taken for granted, and as a result the individual is forgotten in the educational process. There is, therefore, the need to reiterate that development, in the final analysis, is the development of the individual, each according to his or her potential, and in this sense, education is development.

The education systems should not only attempt to equip the individual with tools to achieve freedom from hunger, poverty and dependence, but simultaneously integrate that individual to become an effective member of the community and of society. Education is therefore seen not only as an instrument for improving a person's ancillary role in society, but also to equip him/her with awareness and the means for security, survival, and dignity, and to give him/her knowledge of the availability of public services to assist in this. In this connection, learning how to communicate and how to learn from the environment is seen as at least as important a functional role for education as providing specific skills.

Educational practices in some countries, based on principles of authority and centralized decision making, are not serving these desired policies. Individual development does not exist in a vacuum, but can only function within the framework of a total development process. For example, curiosity enhanced by the learning process, must actually be executed in life situations in order not to create frustration. Rights, too, can only be executed by the masses if duties in terms of social consciousness and responsibilities are discharged by all, including the elite groups in society. At present, the educational systems in the region are lacking both in providing individuals with tools for improving their cultural life and in preparing them for discharging their national responsibilities. Processes of certification merely attempt to integrate them into a society which is basically founded on economic incentive systems, perpetuating inequality. In a specific cultural context, the 'integration' and 'identity' roles of education can thus become conflictual in nature.

International understanding and the New International Economic Order

How to replace an unjust economic order by a more egalitarian dispensation poses a most difficult challenge to the world's statesmen, policy makers and planners.

It is the dialectical concept, founded on the balanced interplay of relations between the endogenous development of each society and the establishment of more equitable and interdependent relations between societies, that must form the basis for new policy guidelines in the field of education. The need for a global, endogenous development approach centred on man cannot be conceived outside a global, negotiated framework for interstate relations. These are the prerequisites for building a new order, which should govern relations between nations, partners in a new context of interdependence.

If a new international order needs a change in morals, as seems to be the case, education can contribute to new morals only indirectly, through learning the truth about national as well as international relations, and through enabling the student to cope with them.

Knowledge is communicated in a process whereby both parties gain. While the world of education is already international, with, in principle, free access to participation for everyone, the 'material' aspects of the transfer from one country to another are subject to gains and losses. Consider for example the brain drain, the potentially harmful effects of importing foreign technical know-how (connected with power in the form of multinationals) in such goal areas as cultural identity, endogenous development, and so on.

International exchange or communication between educational and research institutions thus needs renewal to ensure

a balanced flow of knowledge.

Education must foster international understanding. There is still considerable ignorance about other peoples of the world despite the spread of communication referred to earlier. There are also prejudices in several parts of the world which need to be removed to promote genuine international understanding and co-operation.

The New International Economic Order should be viewed on this enlarged scale of international understanding, in that it seeks to replace the existing unjust and unequal economic order by one based upon equity, sovereign equality, interdependence, common interest and co-operation among states. The development of international understanding and the New International Economic Order must be considered in relation to the development of individuals, as is witnessed by the dialogues on the basic needs approach and on the concept of equity in the international economic order. National and extra-national vested interests often resort to the concept of fulfilment of (third rate) basic needs in order to avoid the larger question of sharing of wealth in pursuit of equity. While this danger exists and must be guarded against, in principle there is no conflict between the two ideas of national basic needs and the New International Economic Order.

Education has a role in the promotion of international economic order in the same way as it has a role in the promotion of equity within the nation. Just as equity within the nation can be promoted by raising the awareness of both the elite groups and the deprived groups of rights and responsibilities in social reality, similarly, at the international level, there is a need both in the developed and developing nations for greater awareness of the realities of international economic relations. This reality, as recognized in the declaration of the New International Economic Order, is that equity cannot be attained within the existing unequal relations. Education has an important part to play in creating this awareness. Education also has a role in promoting collective bargaining strength and mutual co-operation among the less developed countries, and in promoting scientific research and the internal capabilities of these countries in order to solve their own problems and thus to contribute to the development of more just order.

By way of conclusion

It is not surprising that in countries of the region where material poverty is the main problem, the economic aspects of education have received great attention. Such an economic focus is necessary before countries can think of the distribution of economic and social assets in society. However, the foundations and mechanisms of policy formulation in this area are mainly based on the imitation of Western concepts, and attempts to catch up with Western situations. Thus, in the field of education, the emphasis on educational expansion is often at the expense of the linking of learning processes with the economic and socio-cultural needs of different population

groups. The only way in which education can become a 'leader' in the development process, rather than a social mechanism whereby mistakes and negative byproducts of such a process are being corrected, is to increasingly equate education with learning, associate learning with communication and integrate these into the entire process of cultural change. The rich cultures of the countries of the region should be able to provide the foundations for education to assume such a leading role in the development process.

The current state of knowledge of social reality is not adequate. There is a need for philosophical enquiry into the concept of development as derived from Asian experiences, and for similar, sociological, enquiries for methodologies and paradigms arising from Asia's own realities in the search for alternatives to the first and second world models. In the field of education, such models should focus on the following learning processes:

1. Increase the awareness of social reality and of socio-economic processes;
2. Increase the power and assertiveness in people;
3. Organize people to understand and solve problems collectively;
4. Develop humanistic values;
5. Develop productive skills; and
6. Participate in decision making.

Chapter Four

EDUCATIONAL GOALS, POLICIES AND PERSPECTIVES: PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS

Educational goals, however well stated, acquire significance only if, and to the extent that, they are translated into policies and programmes which are implemented and reflected in actual learning situations. It is necessary, therefore, to examine with utmost care, experience in this region of the process of attaining educational goals and the problems and constraints in this process, along with their possible solutions.

Most countries of the region are working for a much more rapid socio-economic transformation than in the past, and expect education to play a crucial role in such transformation. This expected role of education is far more ambitious and complex than its role in countries where socio-economic transformation has already occurred either as a gradual process or as a result of revolutions, in which education had either a marginal role or at best a role of consolidating the transformation that had already occurred. For education to play a major role in socio-economic transformation, planning becomes a necessary instrument, and faith in educational planning is characteristic in the region. The processes and techniques of educational planning, as of implementation, have, however, to be developed according to each country's own requirements, and based on its own experience.

To convert educational goals into consistent action, they should first be translated into clear and specific educational objectives. One difficulty is that goals are sometimes stated ambiguously. This results in multiple operational objectives and leads to unclear signals and directives. Further, the operational significance of goals is not always realized. Goals are often formulated on the basis of ideals, hope, faith and optimum models, often ignoring the basic facts, statistical indicators, resource constraints and practical difficulties of implementation. Also, goals often assume that the school is the only valid organization for providing learning to the masses, an assumption which may well be invalid. The verbal coverage of goals is often not realistic. Educational theoreticians, planners, practitioners and their clientele should jointly formulate pragmatic policies in order to make their implementation feasible and avoid the frustration of always falling short of (unrealistic) targets.

Also, objectives derived from goals may need to exist for a variety of levels of operation. Some objectives may relate only to awareness, while others may go beyond awareness to knowledge, skills and attitudes. A careful analysis

is required of educational objectives at an operational level according to implicit and explicit meanings of goals, the assumptions underlying them, and in the light of the needs of clientele groups.

A major obstacle in the attainment of educational goals in most countries of the region arises from the burden of the status quo. Socio-political, cultural and economic constraints in one form or another influence the flow of educational input into the educational system, the efficiency of combining different elements of the system into a coherent and relevant learning process, the transmission of that process to the total population, and the absorption of that population by the society and by the labour market. Transformation of the status quo thus requires action on a wide front, and educational endeavours must be supported by political, social and economic programmes to achieve any worthwhile success. Yet there are educational objectives derived from some educational goals that do not require such convergence. For example, it is unlikely that in some objectives related to the goal of individual development, dimensions other than education are critically required, while in some other objectives relating to the same goal, social influences are critical. Children will not learn discipline unless they find discipline in society. The latter situation is true of most educational objectives relating to values and attitudes. These objectives are in fact among the most important but most difficult to achieve. The role and effectiveness of education in this area is not very clear, even if education is defined to include community action and community education.

Pre-school education is an important influence in the formation of values and attitudes of children, despite the diversity of research findings with regard to the extent of such influence and the degree to which it can be modified later. Such pre-school education need not necessarily be confined to formalized institutions, which in any case are costly and beyond the reach of most people, and are also beyond the capacities of many governments to provide in adequate measure. This underlines the need for devising alternative and less costly systems of pre-school education which are built into the family and social structures. In any event, there is little justification for governments to spend large sums of money on pre-school education, which assists only a select few, largely from the elite groups. This is a specific area of educational goals where action on diverse fronts in a convergent manner is required.

There is very little knowledge of the actual process of learning among the deprived and the poorer sections of the people in the region. The gap in knowledge is practically in every field - in psychology, sociology, economics and in the entire range of pedagogy. There are no theories of education which can explain adequately the process of communication and learning that occurred in the region, with its rich informal and oral traditions. There is evidence in the countries of the region that efforts to translate educational goals into

specific objectives have failed in the past owing to lack of knowledge of the communication, learning and decision making patterns of these societies. Highest priority is, therefore, to be given to plugging this gap in essential knowledge and thereby to laying the foundations of true and relevant education for the people which would avoid the failures of the past.

Educational theories give little insight into the combination of different educational structures, streams and content areas which would provide for the skills required by the economy. The practice of over-crowding the curriculum of technical and vocational schools, with too great a number of skill-related subjects, while simultaneously attempting to bring about positive attitudes towards manual labour as well as providing useful knowledge and information, may, in the end, lead to very little actual learning taking place. A number of countries reported that in spite of increases in input and many attempts to rationalize the educational process quantitative expansion has often been at the cost of the quality of output, with the exception of a relatively small number of highly qualified people. In terms of educational structures, many countries reported an increased emphasis on universalizing the first level of education. Equality of opportunity should, however, extend beyond the first level, providing adequate access to the second and even third levels, especially to higher vocational education. The absence of any tested evidence which relates educational theories to most effective structures is also a prominent feature in the region. This is specially true in the dilemma of vocational and technical schools versus the vocationalization of general education by providing students with minimum life skills, and a notion of the dignity of labour. The appropriate balance between job-oriented vocational education and the provision of learning modules for absorbing skills at a later stage in life (on the job) is still far from clear. Research in this area would need to be further stimulated.

Equally, there is a lack of application of policy science and its concepts and tools, although all the countries in the region have been formulating policies and attempting to implement them for the past several years. One country cited the fundamental problem of the interaction of the value expectations of the people, the political ideology of the society and the organizational and institutional infrastructure of learning in society, creating serious points of conflict in operationalizing educational goals. Research results to analyze and solve these conflict situations are still absent, and consequently pressure groups in different societies, such as labour unions, economic cells, teacher unions, and parliamentary groups, utilizing the powerful mass media available to them, continue to challenge government leadership in educational matters. In this way they sometimes obstruct, intentionally or not, the implementation of government policies in this area. All this underlines the important need to expose senior educators, administrators and others concerned to studies, techniques, and policy sciences which will build up

competence in reconciling different viewpoints and the interests of different groups.

It would take a long time for the studies and development of theories proposed above to become available to policy makers, administrators and educators. There is a need for immediate action, with full awareness of the limitations of current knowledge. The process of decision making in these circumstances would have to be highly decentralized, so that the imperfections of knowledge would be to some extent compensated by close interaction with the communities and groups for whose benefit the educational programmes are being organized.

Another principle is to have inbuilt flexibility in the programmes so that they could be modified on the basis of experience gained in their implementation. All this requires the building up of firstly, the required infrastructure and institutions, and secondly, the necessary competencies at various levels, most of all at the field level.

This decentralized approach with inbuilt flexibility should be adopted not only with regard to the process of implementation, but also with regard to the process of decision making and planning. There is currently an obsession with centralized planning. Educational planning has often saturated itself with non-formal oriented ritualization or mere budget allocation, and this without adequate statistical intelligence, particularly about the populations for whom programmes for equity and social justice are to be implemented. What statistical data exists smothers the characteristics and disparities in national averages. Planning has been predominantly macro-planning at district level or special problem-target population level. Again, participation in the planning process, especially of disadvantaged population, is non-existant. This, together with highly centralized goal setting and policy formulation procedures permits a heavy influence of vested-interest intervention by the elite in many countries in the region.

In other countries, goal setting and policy formulation are done after wide consultation, and are based on adequate knowledge, but still in a centralized manner. A third approach is to have a highly decentralized system in which autonomy and flexibility could be introduced so that most decisions on planning and implementation are taken at a local level. One country provided examples of how decentralized curricula have been developed and how this was possible through the decentralization of authority, but such developments had occurred only over the last few years.

Monitoring and evaluation are other areas that need close attention. There is need for a practical monitoring system for analyzing the extent to which goals have been reflected in policies (usually found to be a quite good correlation), and policies in programmes. The latter process is much less perfect, mainly because the relevance of programmes is usually only evaluated after they have been implemented.

It is also necessary to have some visible criteria for the evaluation of programme components in terms of their feasibility and internal consistency prior to programme execution. Practitioners should also be involved in this process.

Streamlined procedures for the evaluation of goal attainment are equally necessary. One country reported that educational goals have been developed through a very thorough interplay of national ideology, economic policy and the Five Year Plan, and the level of success in goal implementation was evaluated by a Commission at Cabinet level which profited from inputs by all segments and sectors of society. The importance of policy formulation in education in the process of achieving more global societal goals like unity, reform of societal structures, eradication of poverty and development of scientific manpower was thus recognized, and increased budget allocations for this sector reflected this priority.

Especially lacking is evaluation in terms that relate products to goals and aims, and not purely to routine actions, such as the number of inservice training sessions held, the number of schools built, or the number of scholarships provided for disadvantaged populations. Whether these contribute to the enhancement of equity, social justice and social reform is rarely investigated. Thus actions can remain 'tokens' without substance. Decentralized goal-oriented evaluation is a further contribution to educational development. Again the competencies and instruments for such evaluation have to be developed. In particular competencies at the field level, inbuilt self-evaluation and monitoring take on a special importance. They contribute to quick corrective actions in implementation, as well as to the self-reliance, responsibility and self-volition of field participants, including the community, in the management of social change. Further, such decentralized evaluation will contribute, as in the case of decentralized planning and decision making, to the enhancement of the knowledge base regarding disadvantaged populations.

Lack of appropriate management mechanisms and personnel are also important constraints in the implementation of educational programmes. The transition from maintenance administration to developmental management has been markedly slow in most countries in the region. Functionality in terms of goal achievement is invariably sacrificed at the altar of red-tape, irrelevant procedures, cumbersome lines of authority. In several countries, the educational personnel at higher levels are promoted at a very late stage of their career. There is a need for the induction of younger and fresher blood at higher levels of administration and management in the educational field. It is also necessary to adopt a decentralized system that would provide for adequate delegation of powers and authority. Such a system is more likely to bring together the privileged and underprivileged sections of the community. However, decentralization may lead to deterioration and lack of accountability. To guard against this, a new accountability is needed. This is accountability not for procedures or details, but for results and effectiveness of

performance, and for achieving goals. There is also another kind of accountability, namely, to the community, and the control exercized by the community. Although in some cases control of the community could pose problems, an over-centralized system carries with it a greater danger of statism or state control than a decentralized system.

Another major constraint is in the field of resources. The countries of the region are extremely short of financial resources. Further education is given low priority, as are important sectors like adult education and primary education. Many goals and policies may in fact be unable to be implemented because of resource constraints, and when, in consequence, a 'selection' has to be made, it is often arbitrary, and not based on any proven theory or research outcome. The focus of attention on specific target groups changes over time, without a proper evaluation to determine whether the funds invested have achieved their objectives. Budget preparation, and the linking of the development budget with the operational budget, is still a rather weak point in the management system of education.

Part of the problem arises from the adoption of western models from richer countries. Little research and experimentation is taking place in the testing of less expensive alternative educational delivery systems. Utilization of part-time teachers and motivated persons within the community would constitute one such resource. Reduced instructional time through carefully designed learning and teaching materials could be another means of optimizing resources. New ways of mobilizing additional resources from within and outside the community should also be explored.

Voluntary action has an important role to play in overcoming some of the constraints in the implementation of educational policies and programmes, and in the achievement of educational goals. Many institutions which are not funded by government, and which do not even depend on governmental support or recognition, are doing extremely useful work, and are in the forefront of innovations. It would be useful if policy statements at the national level would encourage such voluntary effort as a useful contribution, particularly for disadvantaged areas.

At the same time, the complex interplay of the public sector and private forces in the field of educational development should be considered, from the point of equity. In the history of some of the countries of the region, the growth of profit-making private schools, often for the poor, but sometimes of very high quality and catering for the elite, raises the entire question of the mobilization of all resources in society, both public and private, in such a way that equity is achieved. In most countries, compulsory schooling up to primary level is the business of the State. But as access cannot be provided to all, especially at higher levels, the question is whether the private sector should be allowed to enter some types of education, possibly the most expensive ones, while public funds are concentrated on subsidizing mass education for all, including the underprivileged.

A major obstacle in achieving the goal of equity is duality in the system of education, with differential rewards attached to different kinds of schools supposedly giving the same level and type of education. One system of assigning children to different schools by lottery was an attempt to overcome this problem, but this pre-supposed the building up of all schools to certain desired standards. The system of differential rewards is also responsible for the non-acceptance by people in general of the pedagogically sound rural- and work-oriented education, and their preference for bookish learning leading to white collar jobs. A determined and co-ordinated effort on reward systems at social and political levels, as well as in education, is needed to overcome such dualities.

Decentralized actions were recommended earlier on the basic principle that distance of interaction and intervention is reduced and decision making, planning, evaluation and implementation take place as close to the target populations as possible. The same principle may be applied to the 'interventions' of the learning institutions (formal and non-formal) in their contributions to the goals of social justice, equity and social change. With relatively small adjustments of the curriculum in these institutions, 'contrived learning' may be applied, and reinforced through designed activities of intervention in the community, where 'knowledge and skills' are used in the solving of real problems and for contributing to the enhancement of the quality of life of the community. In addition to making a direct contribution to equity goals, such a process would also be superior in that what is learned is quickly applied and reinforced, thereby enhancing the important pedagogical process of transfer of learning. A subsequent stage would be the decentralized development of curricula, and learning from problem situations. Education thus becomes not only a provision of learning for life, but a part of life itself, and the artificial separations of learning and work and learning and action are extinguished.

This may well be described as a new pedagogy - one that provides for a higher efficiency of learning, and simultaneously contributes to the goals of equity, social justice and social reform. This new pedagogy will, above all, contribute to the very important, but scarcely touched, domain of attitudes and values. Intervention in the interest of fellow sufferers, using the knowledge and skills of learners, would be an excellent, low cost, and effective vehicle for the development of social responsibility, sympathy, empathy, self-confidence for independent action, and positive and constructive reaction to social reality. Rewards for such actions are immediate in the acclaim of the community and the transcendental 'feeling of service' which will further reinforce the nurturing of such valuable attitudes.

Decentralized planning and decision making, decentralized management and evaluation, and the new pedagogy, would all require the endowment of the 'decentralized' people and places with competencies, knowledge and skills. This must be done on

a continuing basis. In fact, a reliable knowledge and skill flow network for the purpose is essential, so that the practitioners at the decentralized levels will have access to the variety of knowledge and skills as and when required, a close proximity, and quickly. This implies an infrastructure for a knowledge flow system, such as through a network of decentralized resource centres reaching down to the lowest levels of implementation. Associated with and integrated into this network should be a variety of 'centres of excellence' which will continue to generate the knowledge and skill base required to solve problems in the field as they arise, and will react immediately to the 'radar' signals as they come in from the field. In fact, these centres of excellence should also exhibit an 'astrological' vision and prepare, ahead of the signals, the kind of knowledge base and skills that may be required, through problem-focussed, practical-action research, done with the highest vigour of academic and theoretical excellence. In the process, no doubt, new theories of education for all stages in educational development will emerge. The anticipation is that theories will arise not out of ivory tower work, but directly out of the process of service in the solving of problems.

The new pedagogy would be based on the actual needs of learners, and would be developed in close interaction with them. Education in such circumstances would make a useful contribution to the lives of the people with whom it interacts, and short-distance cybernetic linking could be set up between community and school, as well as with non-formal education institutions.

One of the major benefits of the new pedagogy would be the flow of experience and rich and relevant information from the community as a result of the interaction of teachers with the community. From data thus collected, and from the insight into teaching/learning processes and the linkage between education and development, new and relevant theories of education could be developed in due course. This would greatly assist studies referred to earlier.

Is it realistic to expect teachers to act as guides to the community and assist in solving its problems? For this, the teacher requires not only motivation but also requisite competence and resources.

Already it has been noted that recognition, personal acclaim and feelings of achievement, which follow even a small contribution to the community, are important factors in raising the morale and motivation of teachers; their quality, competence and motivation is so crucial to the learning process that it requires further consideration.

One country reported that the intellectually poorest and least-achieving students have entered the teaching profession since economic forces have attracted the talented to other professions. The efficiency of the educational process and the quality of its output is in serious danger in such situations. It was also reported that in that country the teaching profession has been almost entirely confined to females, and

that the consequences of this on the formation of the future generation is difficult to anticipate. All human resources available in society should be able to enter the teaching profession, and it would be the function of the educational process itself to correct any possible imbalances in teachers' characteristics. Another possibility is that the teaching profession in such situations be nationalized, giving the profession both government status and protection. Another country reported that teachers traditionally had a high status and, by law, received high salaries in order to guarantee the highest quality of teaching, as education is considered the key stone to development. However, the problem in this country arose from conflicts with a value system which, has traditionally equated the teaching profession with relative simpleness and poverty.

A number of countries reported on the urgent need for training teachers to become educational leaders in the form of headmasters, district supervisors and administrators. Such educational leaders, who must be forward-looking, require skills in school management and finance as well as in the organization and optimum combination of different learning instruments. They must also know the results of the latest educational research in all curriculum areas. There would be a need for a system of in-service training, combined with information and documentation networks, the financial provision for which is at present rather low in the educational budgets. In this connection, one country noted that the capacity of pre-service teacher training is still too limited. Also, the roles of field supervisors are inadequately described, creating a confusion between their role as administrators and as pedagogical leaders and stimulators.

One of the major constraints in regard to the mobilization of teachers is the attitude of teachers' unions. It is also not correct to expect too much from teachers, without giving them adequate facilities. For instance, in certain places teachers come from distant villages while motivated local personnel are not being utilized. There are, no doubt, some problems in certain countries where part-time appointees demand full-time absorption, but selection of highly motivated and competent teachers and their proper training, utilization and morale is crucial to the success of any major educational endeavour, and efforts in this direction must be given high priority.

The problems of unemployment, underemployment and misemployment of graduates at all levels of the education system, both in the general and the technical and vocational streams, is a serious obstacle to educational goal attainment. One country reported that this problem of mismatch is not limited to general education graduates. On the contrary, the level of unemployment of vocational diploma holders is even greater, which raises the general issue of the content relevance of the vocational courses given. Educational planning, as a mechanism for providing incentives to both the educational system and the labour market, in order to facilitate the

synchronizing of supply and demand of educational manpower, is still imperfect in many countries of the region. A view in this connection is that economic forces in society will always be stronger than socio-cultural forces and value systems, and that the above dilemma can only be solved by giving some minimum levels of vocational life skills to the masses of population, meeting their abilities, roles and aspirations. This could be combined with specific high level technical training, a responsibility to be shared by the private sector through on-the-job training.

The problem of the educated unemployed is linked with the fact that these groups hold back their services to society while waiting for what they think is a fair and correct salary. Many students, therefore, stay in the educational system, thus inflating it, and wasting scarce financial resources without being ensured of a suitable and acceptable occupation at a later stage. The creation of a generation of discontented workers for their lifetime is real risk.

The mismatch is not only caused by economic reasons, but also by social forces and administrative processes of recruitment by both the public and private sectors, giving in to the demands of elite groups in society. One country quoted as an example the fact that, in spite of such policy objectives as cultural identity and equity, the English language has been a prerequisite for hiring practices in the public and private sectors, a practice which changed in the public sector only very recently. In many countries of the region there is a need for radical changes in recruitment procedures, starting with the government sector.

Examinations and certifications also act as a constraint within the educational system, preventing a more harmonious development in this area. Breaking this dilemma is extremely difficult because of vested interests and the opposition of the teaching profession. Another view is that certification in itself is not necessarily wrong, but that its indiscriminate application in isolation as a testing device in different socio-economic environments is the cause of the problem. There is need for a gradual reform of the entire teaching/learning process, including content, methodology, and testing, in the direction of an integrated system of educational, information and skill development services. These would be less based on factual knowledge than on a provision of tools which could assist all population groups in finding and utilizing information and knowledge critical for survival and the improvement of the quality of life.

Efforts over the last 30 years in the field of education have resulted in a certain measure of disillusionment in regard to possible achievement of the national goals formulated in the different country statements. There are indeed no short cuts to overcome the constraints and difficulties currently being faced, and while new theories and adequate knowledge of the situation should be developed, action programmes should be

initiated on a decentralized basis, and on principles of close interaction with the community. An experimental and innovative approach here is likely to be helpful in overcoming past difficulties, and in achieving educational goals. Of utmost importance is the building up of a cadre of teachers, educational planners and administrators imbued with the necessary ideology and commitment. Above all, there must be the necessary political will.

Chapter Five

THE ROLE OF REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

Regional and international co-operation is a vital dimension in the growth and development of countries in the region. In terms of operationalizing actions in such co-operation, a number of general principles need to be kept in mind.

In the area of the formulation of educational goals and policies, at first sight, the scope for regional and international co-operation appears relatively limited. Goals and policies are essentially national concerns. There is a real risk of such co-operation having harmful effects on accepted norms such as self-reliance, endogenous development, cultural identity.

Simultaneously, the formulation of national goals and the development of policies may need to be strongly influenced by increased interdependence among nations, under the eventual impact of the New International Economic Order on educational policies. This aspect would need to be especially kept in mind in the context of regional and international co-operation.

Nevertheless, there is no doubt that each country has to determind its own educational goals, policies and theories. Regional and international co-operation should not mean the transfer of one model from one country to another, even between countries of the developing world. Such transfers have shown themselves to be counter-productive.

All programmes of regional and international co-operation should have, as the foundational principle, the enhancement of the capacities of countries for self-development. The nature and design of the modalities, the content and the strategies, should all converge on this primary principle.

Regional and international co-operation should be based upon partnership among member states and there should be no sense of donor or recipient. Sharing and mutual learning should be the basic purpose, leading to constructive interaction, self-awareness, comparison, critical analysis and self-development. Further, such co-operation, to be effective, should be built upon the efforts of the countries themselves. Organizations such as Unesco can only provide opportunities for sensitizing the countries about problems and issues, and to surface guidelines that may be helpful in solving and clarifying these.

The above conditions apply whether the modality is technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC) or

some other exchange or transfer modality. Important prerequisites for the success of such action is mutual understanding and respect, friendship, and continued personal and institutional contact and communication.

Three broad priority areas on which regional and international co-operation can focus are decision making and policy formulation, planning, management and evaluation, and pedagogical aspects.

In terms of urgency of action, the exchange of information and relevant statistical data in all these areas may be considered of the highest priority. Unesco may act as the Clearing House to expedite such exchanges. Several national documents would be in the national languages, and the translation of these or of representative portions would contribute greatly to the effective exchange of information.

Experience has indicated that while such 'raw' materials are very valuable, specific data on the activities of member states and its dissemination is also needed to enhance the efficiency of exchange of experience. An important modality is through specially designed case reports of selected actions or situations in the countries. These case reports should focus on the 'successful' and the 'unsuccessful', and be analytical in approach, covering all dimensions of the situation including its basic assumptions.

Examples of critical areas for case reports which would support work in goal and policy formulation in the member states, include the following:

- Experience of universalization of first level education;
- Low cost expansion of education;
- Equity versus quality in education;
- Policy formulation and planning at central, intermediate and decentralized levels;
- Management at central, intermediate and decentralized levels;
- Evaluation at central, intermediate and decentralized levels; and
- Rules, regulations, work procedures utilized in educational practices.

Prior to the development of such case reports, regional consultative meetings, under Unesco sponsorship, and bringing together the designers, will ensure comparative methodologies, techniques and instruments, and also clarify the scope and dimension of the case reports.

The nature of goal formulation and its present status is such that even case reports may be insufficient to provide the depth of knowledge base required for the many aspects to be investigated. Unesco could act as a catalyst to stimulate in-depth investigations in critical areas of the goal and

policy formulation process, the informative knowledge bases required for goal and policy formulation, and in implementation and evaluation. Again, Unesco sponsored regional consultative meetings to develop the design and scope of these investigations would be essential. Some of the studies may take the form of inter-country projects, which would group together countries with similar interests for mutually supportive investigations.

While evaluation of goals, policies, plans, and implementation are essentially national activities, periodic 'sounding board' actions through expert evaluation panels, at the request of member states, will serve purposes of critical review and brain storming. Unesco may consider acting as a facilitator for such panel activities.

Regional meetings, such as the present, serve as excellent vehicles not only for high level exchange of information, but also for cross-fertilization, validation and development of basic concepts, questioning of assumptions, and analysis of strategies. These meetings should be confined to decision makers and should include the development of a concrete work plan for post-meeting national action as follow-up.

Technical practitioners in the areas of goal, policy and plan formulation should also be exposed to experiences in other countries involved in similar work, and inter-country exchange visits and placement programmes are effective vehicles that Unesco may consider.

In order to implement the above suggestions, and for service to Member States as requested, it was urged that the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania review its existing structure and mechanisms. It was suggested that the establishment of a specially identified unit be considered.

PART II

COUNTRY REPORTS

BANGLADESH

When considering an approach towards the identification of educational goals, it is imperative to account for the widely differing opinions on the relationship between education and society. In this regard the Edgar Faure Report[1] states that there is a close correlation, simultaneous and direct, between changes in the socio-economic environment and the structure and forms of education, which makes a functional contribution to historical movements. Moreover, it seems that through the knowledge it provides of the environment in which it operates, education may help society to become aware of its problems and, provided that efforts are centred on training 'complete men' who will consciously seek their individual and collective emancipation, may greatly contribute to changing and humanizing the fabric of the society itself. There are close links between society's major objectives and the aims assigned to education. It is also evident that it is nearly impossible to break out of the vicious circle of underdevelopment and inequality in educational development without attempting to deal with both of these problems together.

Out of this realization, there appears to be a greater need today than ever before for reforms in education to have social and economic development objectives, and this one cannot conceive of society developing without a renewal in education. This is valid for all societies irrespective of type, predominant doctrine or how they envisage their future, be it reformist or revolutionary. In fact, the nature and degree of impact of education on the society and on the economy is the most objective yardstick of educational achievements in the contemporary world. It can very well be said that in the present context education is how education functionally projects itself on the society in totality and its economic endeavours. Recognizing constraint of time dilation of these aspects does not appear to be called for.

The education system of Bangladesh is not easily described on the basis of a theoretical model. It did not emerge out of the realization that the output of the various components of the education system should produce manpower with appropriate skills necessary for social and economic development. It is best understood by focussing attention on the mainstream of the national system of education which broadly comprises three stages: primary, secondary and higher education. These are divided into different branches or types: general, technical and professional. There are over 40,000 primary schools, 2,562 junior secondary, and 6,740 secondary

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1. See Appendix B.

schools in Bangladesh. There are also 2,400 Madrassa which impart vital religious instruction. Some also provide functional technical education, the government having decided to incorporate the contents of skill training in the educational content of Madrassa. Higher education is imparted in the general universities and colleges, and professional education is pursued by and large in the disciplines of agriculture, medicine and engineering through the institutional facilities at various levels. A numerical profile, by levels and types, of the education system (except Madrassa) presently in operation in the country is given in Appendix A.

The education system that prevailed in the country during colonial rule was not geared to the needs of the economy. Its products appear to have developed an attitude towards manual labour leading to alienation from their own people, culture and tradition. What is now needed is to look for an answer to the following questions:

> Does education contribute to economic growth?
> Can education be used to accelerate economic development in poor countries like ours?
> How much can the educational planners contribute when the objectives of educational policy so frequently include non-economic considerations?

This, in fact, brings us to the objectives and policy issues of an education system relating education to labour, market, employment and income. The policy issues involved may be conveniently arranged under two broad headings:

1. The role and responsibility of education in an employment-oriented development strategy;
2. The problem of educated unemployment and underemployment and the functioning of the labour market.

Under the first of these headings two interrelated groups of policy questions are being tackled - that of the relationship between education productivity and income and that of the optimal structure and content of education. The main policy question dealt with here arises in the extent to which educational variables can be used as policy instruments to influence productivity and income levels. An assessment of the influence of education on employment and income is essential to the determination of the proportion of development resources devoted to education and the distribution of educational resources between different levels and types of education. However, until now the actual allocation of resources is not done on this basis. It is mostly done arbitrarily.

In the recent past all countries have undergone fantastically swift environmental changes in sciences and technology, in economic and political affairs, in demographic and social structure. Educational systems and techniques have also grown and changed more rapidly than ever before. But they have adapted all too slowly to the faster pace of events on the move all around them. The consequent imbalance and

disparity, taking many forms, between educational systems and their environments is the point of concern in the field of education in the country today, as also perhaps in the rest of the world.

One form that the crisis assumes is the lack of mutual adjustment and adaptation between the society and its education. The obvious outcome is a growing disparity between education and society which eventually cracks the framework of educational systems, and in some cases, of their respective societies. This is inevitable, for as the educational needs of national development continue to grow and change, and pressures on the educational systems continue to build up, it is not possible to meet the situation by merely increasing the resources made available to the systems. What are needed most are ideas and courage, determination and a new will for self-appraisal reinforced by a will for adventure and change. This in turn means, from the society's point of view, that educational managers in particular must face up to the challenge to the relevance of their systems. They must make sure that education does what is best for the individual and his society and that it is not wasting too much of its scarce resources on unessentials.

Only the managers of such a self-aware system will be able to catch and deal with errors before these harden into habits able to resist even the stoutest hammers later used against them. If an educational system loses the power to see itself clearly in the content of its own society, such a system is a satire on education itself. From the standpoint of society, the resources invested in perpetuating such a system are misused resources - misused because a high proportion of its students will emerge ill-fitted to serve well either themselves or their society.

There is another facet of the issue where the society itself causes maladjustment between its own needs and the state of education. In the wake of increasing social demands for education, as attempts are made to transform an elitist educational system into one serving the mass of people and to use it as an instrument for national development, many novel problems occur. Increase in the popular aspiration for more education does not necessarily mean that people want the kind of education that under new circumstances is most likely to serve both their own future best interests and those of national development. Most students naturally hope that education will help them to get a job in their developing society, but their job preferences are often dictated by a prestige-carrying hierarchy of jobs, set in the past, which does not fit the new hierarchy of manpower requirements bearing on economic growth.

When the incentive structure and employment demands of the market-place also reflect the old hierarchy of prestige, there is a serious disjunction between the nation's manpower needs and its actual manpower demands. The student, in choosing an academic field, and the educational system, in

trying to change its student flows to match the requirements of national development, are both caught in the cross-tensions between the society's stated development goals and its anti-development patterns of prestige and incentives. In a broad sense, therefore, the point of concern is not simply of education, but one that embraces the whole of society and the economy.

In the area of structure and content of education, answers are being sought to a wide ranges of policy questions including:

- Which curricula and teaching methods contribute optimally to an employment-oriented development strategy?
- How can an education system be designed to best suit the needs of, for example, future employees in the informal sectors or rural workers?
- How can households be made more responsive to public policies and employment-generating programmes? What role does education and related factors play in this regard?
- Should each cycle in the education system be terminal or geared to the next cycle? What role should be played by systems in which period of work and study alternate?
- What examination systems are good predictors of professional achievements, and do not cause the teaching function to be dominated by the selection function of education?

In this context, what is now needed is to increase awareness of education-labour market disequilibria; and for this forecasts will be prepared of the size of the labour market and surpluses of educated manpower which are expected to develop in the near future. Analysis of the results will contribute policy guidance on the following issues:

1. Potential improvement in the technical and allocative efficiency of the educational structure and the possible impact of job opportunities school leavers, particularly how student motivation can be influenced in order to reduce the number of unskilled dropouts the system is producing.
2. Possible intervention in the labour market, such as adjustments to government pay scales and wage policies and measures to promote self-employment and small scale industries development.

Deep-rooted factors such as social attitude apart, it would appear that the qualitative aspect of education is closely tied to curriculum and course contents, quality of teaching, teaching materials and techniques, and laboratory and library facilities. Are our institutions devoting sufficient time and thought to developing co-ordinated action

programmes for improvements and adjustments in the curriculum and teaching contents? Are present curriculum and course contents being re-evaluated in the context of our own society? Are faculty members at the higher levels of education integrating themselves with the constantly changing society to gain insight into its need and aspirations or are they keeping themselves aloof from its the dusty noisy chaos? Are the educational authorities, particularly at higher levels of education, making judicious decisions with respect to the spending of resources on the advancement of training and research as opposed to the construction of buildings and modern structures?

Precise answers to these questions and probably many others would certainly be rich additions to our knowledge. But many things which can be seen today in the process of our education are far from what they should be. There does not seem to be much effort to evaluate objectively time-honoured curricula in the context of our own social needs, which would enable particularly the universities to recast and readjust their course contents. There is a general feeling that the quality of teaching is deteriorating.

Keeping in view the above issues, the future educational objectives of Bangladesh should keep the following in mind.

1. Education must be responsive to the specific requirements of the nation. It must have relevance to future work and life and must provide necessary preparation for productive employment;

2. The system should produce, whether through formal or non-formal education, a cadre of skilled manpower required for the country's development needs. It must no longer turn out scores of educated men who remain mostly unemployed or unemployable;

3. All citizens should have an inherent right to a minimum level of education and should be able to receive it at any age convenient to them. An 'open' education system should therefore be developed which would widen the range of choices available to learners and permit them to move both horizontally and vertically. All children must, however, be assured of basic formal education, at least at the primary level;

4. Education facilities of a basic minimum standard should be made available to all seats of learning regardless of whether they are located in rural areas or in the cities or whether they are managed by the government or privately;

5. The education system should abandon the strict compartmentalization of primary, secondary and higher education and instead, aim at reaching a 'spectrum of education' which would be open to all, through innovative measures. In other words,

the education system must be viewed as a totality and the goals of all the different layors must be one;

6. Education, broadly viewed, must be able to enrich the cultural attainments of the people.

The strategies enumerated below are proposed to achieve the above objectives.

1. Efforts will be made to improve the quality of education by making an optimum use of available facilities and increasing the number of trained teachers, particularly at the primary and secondary levels. Facilities such as teachers and teaching materials will be increasingly channelled to these institutions so that better education and larger enrolment can be secured simultaneously. Larger enrolment will be made possible in most case through double shifts;

2. Science education in both schools and colleges will be strengthened through the provision of well-equipped laboratories and more practical and functional lessons;

3. Vocational and technical training at different levels including Madrassa education will be given greater emphasis with provision for enlarged on-the-job training. These training facilities will help to take care of the school dropouts;

4. Central laboratories and community workshops attached to schools and vocational training institutions will provide additional facilities to enable out-of-school people, irrespective of age, to receive training in various skills and trades;

5. Higher education will be made selective and available to those who can benefit by it, keeping in view the relation of input and output with the needs of a growing economy;

6. Steps will be taken to spread effective adult literacy throughout the country. Use will be made of the secondary- and college-level student population in this regard as well as mass-media such as radio and television;

7. Female education will be given special attention, with the particular objective of turning out teachers for primary and secondary schools.

In the context of international co-operation, the concept of 'education's world-wide market' and mutual benefits of educational commerce among nations is gaining currency in the contemporary world. It is realized that the international exchange of educational and cultural goods can help solve the educational crisis which all members of the educational common market share. Our education system can also

benefit substantially through the mechanism of exchange of knowledge and ideas, personnel, physical facilities, equipment and supplies. Ideas, techniques and technologies developed elsewhere around the globe can contribute to the upliftment and orientation of our education system. But we may very well land in trouble by indiscriminate use of these borrowed techniques and technologies without properly adapting them to our own context, and thereby render our whole effort counter-productive.

If the evil wastage of investment for education is not to be allowed to perpetuate, if education is not to be permitted to be kept away from society at a tremendous cost to society itself, it is time that the whole situation be assessed objectively, and corrective measures systematically initiated. We, as many other developing countries, happen to be running behind in the race. As we cannot work a miracle, the process of catching up has to be gradual. We must nevertheless set the ball rolling without any more loss of time.

Easy solutions do not exist. It is sufficiently evident that familiar 'panaceas' cannot work everywhere for all time to fit all situations. Yet it is true that there are multiple solutions matching particular times and contexts. The most tested way of emerging from the debris is to formulate balanced strategies, carefully geared to match the identified problem fronts. An educational development strategy is not, however, something that exists in a vacuum, nor can it be put together by one single individual, or an expert, or even a group of experts. It must be built of widely different aims, of rational perception and will-power rising directly from the economic, social and cultural milieu to which it is to make its contribution. In the formulation of a strategy for the development of our higher education, in order to avoid going in circles or nowhere at all, we must aim for one that matches the context of the society that is our own. Vicious problems have already cast their shadows of imbalance and irrelevance on our education. Before the shadows lengthen, before difficulties take the shape of problems and problems combine to assume a seriousness beyond control and ignite a total crisis, we must look back into all the thorny issues that beset our education, objectively, without being guided by passion, emotion or intellectual romanticism.

Appendix A

A NUMERICAL PROFILE OF THE PRESENT EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BANGLADESH[1]

	Type of institution	Number of institutions
A.	General education	
1.	Primary schools	40,313
2.	Lower secondary schools	2,562
3.	Secondary high schools	6,740
4.	Intermediate colleges	277
5.	Degree colleges (including one Arts and Craft College and one College of Music)	315
6.	General university	4
B.	Technical education	
1.	Vocational training institutes	31
2.	Technical training centres	5
3.	Monotechnic institutes	4
4.	Polytechnic institutes	17
5.	Commercial institutes	17
6.	Engineering colleges	3
7.	Engineering university	1
8.	Survey institutes	2
C.	Professional education	
1.	Medical education	
	a) Medical colleges	8
2.	Agricultural education	
	a) Agricultural college	1
	b) Agricultural university	1
3.	Primary training institutes	47
4.	Teacher training colleges	10
5.	College of physical education	1
6.	Technical teachers training college	1

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Appendix B

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CHINA

The development of education in China

Before the founding of the People's Republic, education in China was in a state of neglect. As it was designed to serve the reactionary ruling class, the working majority was deprived of its right to education. Over 80 per cent of the population was illiterate. In old China, some countries had no middle schools. The total enrolment in schools at all levels was only a little over 25 million on the eve of National Liberation in 1949.

The establishment of the People's Republic opened a new page in the education of the nation. Since then, there has been rapid development and more than 90 per cent of children of school age are at present enrolled in schools. Primary school population now totals 146 million, which is a five-fold increase of the 1949 figure. The total number of students in general middle schools is now 65 million, or 63 times that of 1949. There are some 520,000 students in specialized secondary schools, or 6.9 times more than in 1949. College enrolment shows a 6.3-fold increase over 1949 and now totals 850,000. Educational opportunities were scanty for women in old China, whereas girls now make up about half of the primary school pupils, 40 per cent of the middle school students and about 30 per cent of the college students.

Before liberation, many minority nationalities had hardly any schools. Some of them did not even have written languages and had to keep records by carving on wood and tying knots. At present, all the 50 odd nationalities not

only have their own primary and secondary schools but also include college students. In 1978, in schools at all levels, students from the minority nationalities totalled some 10,093,000, of which over 35,000 were studying in institutions of higher learning. That was a 16-fold increase over 1951. The foregoing amply demonstrates that the Chinese people now have equal right to education irrespective of sex or nationality.

In the early years of the People's Republic, the people's government took over the schools from the Kuomintang and regained sovereignty over education from the imperialists. The schools could then be put through careful step-by-step reforms, and patriotic intellectuals united to serve the people. The various departments in the institutions of higher learning were readjusted, and schools at different levels were reformed after 1952 as required by national construction. All this was done on the guiding principle of taking as the basis the experiences in the old liberated areas, of learning from advanced experiences from abroad and drawing on the useful experiences of former days.

On educational goals and theories, Chairman Mao Zedong laid down in 1957 and 1958 the guiding principles - that education must serve proletarian politics and be combined with productive labour, and that everyone who receives an education must be enabled to develop morally, intellectually and physically, and become a cultured, socialist-minded worker. Since then, China's education has entered a new phase. From 1949 to 1966, we saw on the whole rapid development and success in our educational undertaking.

In spite of the great development and success, China's education has a long way to go before it meets the needs of the modernization of the country. In this connection, Premier Hau Guofent says, "The whole nation must work hard to greatly raise its understanding of science and culture". Deng Xiaoping, vicepremier of the State Council, says, "The modernization of China has its key link in science and technology and its foundation stone in education" and, "Development of our science and education is essential to our national economy and modernization". In the past thirty years, China's education has experienced twists and turns besides developments. During the ten years from 1966 to 1976, the feudal-fascist brutality of Lin Biao and the gang of four (Wang Hongwen, Zhang Chunqiao, Jiang Qing and Yao Wenyuan) subjected our undertaking to sabotage unprecedented in history. They made education and culture their first target of attack and condemned the educational work of the People's Republic as devoid of any single merit, causing an unprecedented calamity to Chinese education. Educational institutions of every description underwent plunder and violence. The quality of our education went to the dogs.

Higher education under our socialist construction undertakes the tasks of training specialists and promoting education, culture, science and technology. Up to the end

of the 1977-1978 academic year, China's full-time institutions of higher learning had graduated more than 2,945,000 students, which was 16 times the total of college graduates in the 20 years before liberation. There are now six hundred institutions of higher learning in China. Their enrolments total 850,000. The regular college course generally takes four years, some five. There are altogether more than 800 specialities in colleges and universities throughout the country. The Chinese colleges and universities, especially the key ones, are at present working dauntlessly to become 'bi-centric', that is, at once a centre of education and a centre of scientific research. Graduate education is provided in some institutions of higher learning to train college teachers and research workers of a higher level. Before the Cultural Revolution, more than 16,000 students had finished their post-graduate courses, lasting two to four years. College entrance examinations are organized by the state with uniform test papers throughout the country. Grants-in-aid are given to students with financial difficulties, including money for their board. Work is assigned by the state upon their graduation.

The task of the primary and secondary schools is to train qualified entrants for schools of higher grades, or a qualified reserve force of labour for the state. There are 162,000 general secondary schools throughout the country. This is a 40-fold increase as compared with the 4,045 existing in 1949. There are 949,000 primary schools, representing a multi-fold increase in the 30 years since liberation. Primary and secondary schools now have a total enrolment of 211,000,000. The secondary school has in general a course of five years, the primary school a course of five consecutive years. The total time for instruction in the five years of primary school is 4,836 periods. Secondary schools devote nine months to classes with a total time of instruction of 4,862 periods. Specialized secondary education was given to junior middle school graduates for a period of three years in the early years of the People's Republic. Since the mid-1950s, a four-year course has been required by most engineering, veterinary, medical and obstetrical schools. There are 345 specialities under 14 categories in the following seven branches: 242 in engineering, 25 in agriculture, 11 in forestry, 12 in medicine, 34 in finance and economics, one in physical training and 20 in arts. The total time for instruction is about 3,500 periods for the four-year course, 2,600 for the three-year course and 2,000 for the two-year course.

In order to expand education and raise its standards, teachers' education has to come first. The total enrolment of the teachers' colleges and normal universities increased from 12,000 to 252,000 in the 30 years from 1949 to 1978. The graduates from these institutions of higher learning in the same period numbered 636,000, or 30.3 times the total output for the 20 years immediately before liberation. The number of normal schools has increased from some 600 to the present 1,016, having graduated 2,367,000 students, or 6.5

times the total in the 16 years immediately before liberation. The normal universities and teachers' colleges have four-year courses while the teachers' training institutes have a course of two to three years. Normal schools train primary teachers from junior middle school graduates in three-year courses. In-service training of teachers is also provided. For the upgrading of in-service teachers there is, in general, a teachers' college in each province, municipality or autonomous region, a normal school in each county. Teachers who have not been professionally trained but qualify through in-service training are so recognized and duly certified.

After liberation, pre-school education underwent remarkable development. There were only some 1,300 kindergartens in old China with a total enrolment of only 130,000. In 1978 there were 164,000 kindergartens throughout the country, taking care of 7,870,000 children, or 60.5 times the pre-liberation figure.

In short, the task of fundamental importance is to build China into a powerful socialist country before the end of the century. To accomplish this task, an urgent problem to solve is the training of necessary scientists, technologists, economic administrators and qualified people's teachers. At present, the various branches of the national economy are now implementing the policy of adjustment, reform, reorganization and improvement. Thus, the educational departments must also plan their work on that principle. Educational work must follow the path of healthy development based on past experience and lessons. We shall study the changing situation and solve problems in order to do our best to improve our education, science and culture.

Prospects of education in Asia

'Learning from the advanced foreign experience' is one of the basic principles concerning the modernization of educational development in our country. The essence of this principle is to relate experience drawn from foreign countries to new creation by our own practice. Therefore, we should direct our attention not only to the undertaking at home, but also to the study of education abroad. As a developing country, it will be very good for us to study the advanced experience of our Asian neighbours.

The development of education in Asian countries owes a great deal to the initiative, guidance and help given by Unesco. From 1970 to 1978, the organization trained 46 advanced expert managers for Asian countries, who were consultants or officials in charge of education in various countries. The methods of training included lectures, discussions, visits, observations and practices. Up to now the organization has trained 4,380 experts, 600 being Asians or Oceanians. In short, the Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania has achieved very notable success in developing science and education in this part of the world, especially in promoting

intercourse between countries of the region in this undertaking.

In the field of international exchange of foreign experience, India, as well as some other Asian countries, has given the world valuable contributions to education. From 1970 to 1972, the Asian Institute for Educational Planning and Management Research sponsored two courses for training educational managers. Each course took five to six months. The subjects of the courses were up-to-date, including the exploitation of modern techniques and equipment in school management. Practice work included managing education in a certain imaginary Asian country. A training course for educational top managers took place in 1972.

Like India, Japan has also given the world valuable contributions in education. In 1978, China sent 109 students to Japan, no more than the number we had sent to any other Asian country. Japan's activities in Unesco and its support to the United Nations University has won praise the world over. With respect to co-operation on the campus with developing countries, Japan has also given the world valuable contributions in education. During the 1976 financial year, Japan invited 14 educationists and leaders for consultation on educational problems. In the same year, Japan sent 11,000 students to various countries, while many scientists and experts were sent to help developing countries. At present, students go to Japan not only from Asian countries, but also from other parts of the world. In 1976, foreign students in Japanese universities numbered 5,600. Attaching much importance to international co-operation in educational science, Japan has been carrying out binary and multipolar co-operation with many countries. In 1978, Japan sent 1,397 experts for research work abroad and received 309 experts from other countries. In order to update educational science, Japan spends a lot of money on research work. For example, in the 1977 financial year Japan spent 2,340 million yen on this subject.

The development of China's education has been comparatively slow. According to the Unesco 1977 Year Book, there were 17.99 college students per thousand in the Philippines in 1975. The Japanese quota reached 20.52 in 1976, while in 1978 the Chinese quota was only 0.89. Statistics also show the yearly growth of the number of college students in various Asian countries. Thailand had 36,000 in 1965 and 131,000 ten years later, showing a yearly growth of 13.7 per cent. Japan had 1,128,000 in 1965 and 2,313,000 in 1976, a yearly growth of 6.3 per cent. In India, the number grew from 1,054,000 in 1965 to 3,199,000 in 1976, the yearly increase being 106,000 students. China, however, presented quite another picture. The enrolment dropped from 674,000 in 1965 to 501,000 ten years later, the yearly growth being negative, i.e., minus 2.9 per cent. This retrogression, unprecedented in world history, was one sequence of the maleficence of Lin Biao and the gang of four.

As regards middle school enrolment, China presented a much better picture during the ten years from 1965 to 1975. The number grew from 13,770,000 to 44,661,000, the yearly increase being 12.5 per cent. During the same period, the Thai enrolment grew from 317,000 to 959,000 a yearly increase 11.7 per cent, the Indian from 17,133,000 to 24,750,000, a yearly increase of 2.7 per cent.

Primary education has also been developing in Asia. Thailand had 4,640,000 primary school pupils in 1965 and 6,686,000 ten years later, the yearly increase being 3.7 per cent. Japan had 9,927,000 primary school pupils in 1965 and 10,610,000 in 1976, the yearly increase being 0.6 per cent. In China, the enrolment was 116,209,000 in 1965 and 150,941,000 ten years later, the yearly increase being 2.6 per cent.

The foregoing sums up positive and negative experiences in the development of our education in three decades. By way of analysis and epitome, a few words can be added here. There is no doubt that our education as a whole has made great advances. This, however, does not mean that such attainments have by and large been able to cope with the needs of the 'four modernizations'.

With reference to education in Asia in the future, the educational task and theory of a particular country should be based on its social system and production status. Different social systems may have different aims and believe in different theories of education. Nevertheless, as developing countries, all have some aspects of education in common.

For a long time, many people had little idea of pedagogy. As a whole, pedagogy in the past did not help the student to understand himself, his personality, mental ability and mental activities, and the laws governing his physical development. Recent achievements in biochemistry and the study of the human brain have given us a clearer and more objective understanding of human activity, mentality and the process of study. The findings reveal, to our surprise, the fact that a great portion of the brain potentiality has never yet been exploited. According to the estimation of some educational and psychological authorities, this portion could be as much as 90 per cent. The philosophy, psychology and science of education should deal with the development of man. And yet in the past, studies were mainly concentrated on man's social character while his natural character was almost neglected. In this connection, the great educationist K. Marx says, "In the final analysis, natural science will embrace the final analysis of man just as our science embraces natural science. It will become a branch of science in its own right". And it is in this direction that the development of modern educational science is found.

In Asia, many schools are trying to give new scientific achievements a place in their classrooms. In order to build up a modern China, we too are renewing our teaching materials.

Teaching media are also being modernized. Traditional teaching methods seldom linked theoretical knowledge with

practice. The students were fed rather than guided. It was hard to inspire the students' creativeness, imagination and initiative. However, observation, classification and proving conclusions are not regarded the work of educational scientists. Nowadays, psychologists are doing further research on the problem of knowledge. Knowledge is no longer regarded as a primitive and invariable accumulation of acquirements, but as a process of development. If the experiment based on the theory of memory and knowledge advanced by psychologists finds application, it will greatly help to modernize the management and media of education, and thus make education much more efficient.

One trend in the reform of education is to vary schooling. Most educational workers in Asian countries believe that the one-form education system will not match social developments. Improvements have recently been made in China's system of education, especially in senior middle schools. Only a small fraction of senior middle school graduates have the chance to enter universities and colleges, the majority having to work. If there is nothing but the traditional senior middle schools, these graduates will lack vocational training, which implies a serious social problem. Hence most educationists stand for a more complex educational programme or comprehensive education at this stage so as to give the senior middle school graduates some vocational training, which will help them to take certain jobs later.

In some educationally developed countries, it is believed that emphasis should be placed on reforming forms and structures of higher education. The term of study at university and college should be divided into three stages instead of two. The first and second years are devoted to vocational training; the following two years to elementary research work; and then three or five years of post-graduate research work. At present, education reforms in the university and college are developing in this direction in some Asian countries.

Some Asian countries are rather underdeveloped educationally. In order to raise the cultural level of the people, most countries attach first importance to primary and secondary schools, making manifold efforts to give every child a chance of schooling. In India, a double-track system has been introduced so as to cut down the 2nd and 3rd-year pupil's schoolday by half and let the teachers teach more pupils. Part-time classes are given to those who cannot go to school during the day. Thus the school-houses are used every hour, and many young pupils do not have to stop their schooling as before. Similar trends can be found in China. The basic education is far from suited to the development of the country. Now efforts are being made to bring about a change. Full-time primary schools are extending their enrolment; more half-time primary schools are being set up; community-run primary schools are receiving more help from the government; schools on horseback and schools in boats are also taking shape. There is an attempt to bring education to every child in the shortest possible period.

One of the basic solutions to the problem of how to promote teacher education is to have a correct understanding and handling of the particular features relating to the main development trends in this field. There is no doubt that schools at all levels and of all types have their own particularities, and institutions of teacher training are no exception. The particular features of teacher education always find expression in the aim of training, curriculum, content and method of instruction, orientation of scientific research, administration and control, and particularly in the setting up of specialized courses.

A teacher training college or school for the preparation of qualified teachers can be aptly compared to a 'machine tools plant' for the manufacture of standardized machine parts. Thus, by making a comparative study of the situation of primary and middle school teachers, we can make a correct appraisal of the features and basic orientation of teacher education. After liberation, the teacher education undertaking in China developed with great success. Many experiments have been made, and many reforms introduced. Members of teaching staffs have developed and and grown in strength. However, in comparison with the advanced experience of our Asian neighbours, our education undertaking is still developing at a very slow pace, which does not correspond with the rapid development of education in Asia and Oceania.

But the beginning of the 1980's has offered us bright prospects. In order to train millions upon millions of builders of the future, China will spare no efforts in enriching her student acquirements, reforming her higher and secondary education, popularizing her primary education, and extending vocational education on various levels through every medium available. We do believe that China will become a powerful and advanced socialist country.

INDIA

Historical perspective

The value and belief systems of Indian society have profoundly influenced the development of educational thought and educational goals and policies. Perhaps the single most important document that reflects these fundamental values and beliefs is the Constitution of India adopted by our founding fathers in January 1950, when India was declared a Sovereign Democratic Republic as a result of the successful culmination of a protracted freedom struggle. The Indian struggle for independence was not a mere struggle for liberation but was also directed towards achieving social, political and economic goals. In fact, social reform was a political creed of the freedom movement and faith in morality was its strength. The Preamble to the Constitution of India reflects the fundamental values of Indian society when it declares that its aim is to secure to all its citizens

> "justice - social, economic and political; liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship; equality of status and of opportunity and to promote among them all: fraternity, assuring the dignity of the Individual and the unity and integrity of the Nation."

A glimpse at the history of education in India shows that, in keeping with her great tradition of diversity, tolerance and humanism, various religious and cultural groups established their own educational institutions to suit their specific requirements. Some of these were religious and others general institutions imparting vocational education. The religious institutions "provided for the development of the whole man body, mind and soul. Infusion of a spirit of piety and religiousness, formation of character, development of personality, inculcation of civic and social duties, promotion of social efficiency, and preservation and spread of national culture."[1] Under the influence of Buddhism, the discipline of manual labour was added since the Buddhist institutions aimed at serving the suffering humanity. Later on, the Muslims introduced Maktabs as the religious institutions and Madrasahs as the institutions of general education aimed at acquainting pupils with the religious and cultural heritage of Islam and preparing civil officers, teachers, lawyers, etc.[2] In the early nineteenth century, the British introduced their educational system. With a system of grants-in-aid to the institutions imparting the British system of education, with a view to absorbing the products into their civil services, the indigenous educational systems underwent a setback. This alienated Indian education from the belief and value systems of the people. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, a group of social reformers, including Maharishi Dayanand, Swami Vivekanand, Swami Jotirao Pholey and Dadabhai Naroji, came forward with missions to re-enliven the value systems in the society and reform it. Education was an important plank of their reform movement.

One of the significant political events which had a bearing on the evolution of the present system of education was the opening of the national schools and colleges as a sequel to the Non-co-operation movement led by Mahatma Gandhi in the 1920s. Spearheading the movement for achievement of Swarajya (Self-rule), the people were advised to participate in

> "the gradual withdrawal of children from schools and colleges owned, aided and controlled by the government and in place of such schools and colleges, the establishment of National Schools and Colleges."[3]

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1. Altekar, A.S. *Education in Ancient India.* N and Kishore and Bros., Banaras, 1951; pp: 8-9.
2. Ibid.
3. The Calcutta Resolution of the Indian National Congress.

At the same time, the British announced their policy to transfer education to Indian control as a part of their system of diarchy in 1921. These two events created a social and political consciousness for education and as such a search for a national system of education began. The crucial issues were:

1. What should be the bases and goals of the national system of education?
2. What is it which is undesirable in the British system of education that makes it unfit for this land?

The Zakir Hussain Committee report (popularly known as the Wardha Report, 1937) is the first landmark in delineating the national educational goals and the value system to be generated by education. Some of their pace-setting decisions were:

> "Any scheme of education designed for Indian children will in some respects radically differ from that adopted in the West, for unlike the West, the nation has adopted non-violence as the method of peace, for achieving all-round freedom. Our children will, therefore, need to be taught the superiority of non-violence over violence."
>
> "In Modern India, citizenship is destined to become increasingly democratic in the social, political, economic and cultural life of the country."
>
> "One of the purposes of education is to produce workers who will look upon all kinds of useful work - including manual work, even scavenging - as honourable, and who will be both able and willing to stand on their own feet."
>
> "Education should give the citizens of the future a keen sense of personal worth, dignity, efficiency and will; strengthen in them to desire for self-improvement and social service in a co-operative community."
>
> "The remedy lies in educating them through some suitable form of productive work."[4]

Simultaneously, the shortcomings of the British system of education were pointed out as being "listless, devoid of the real currents of life, unable to adapt itself to the changed circumstances, uninspiring, without any creative ideal, based on exploitation."[5] The aim was to replace it by a "more constructive and human system."[6]

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4. Zakir Hussain Committee Report, 1937, incorporated in *Educational reconstruction*. Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Wardha, 1950, pp. 91-96.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid.

The Sargent Plan of 1944 incorporated the main recommendations of the Zakir Hussain Committee in its scheme of post-war educational reconstruction. Thus at the advent of independence, the country had already with it a vision of national educational goals. The ideals of education were also influenced by national leaders like Tagore, Aurobindo and Mahatma Gandhi.

With the achievement of Independence in 1947, educational policies, goals and programmes were reviewed comprehensively and on the basis of the report of the Education Commission (1964-66), a Statement of National Policy on Education was formulated in 1968. This declared that:

> a radical reconstruction of education .... is essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realizing the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society. This will involve a transformation of the system to relate it more closely to the life of the people; a continuous effort to expand educational opportunity; a sustained and intensive effort to raise the quality of education at all stages; an emphasis on the development of science and technology; and the cultivation of moral and social values. The educational system must produce young men and women of character and ability, committed to national service and development. Only then will education be able to play its vital role in promoting national progress, creating a sense of common citizenship and culture and strengthening national integration.[7]

The reference to moral values in this Statement should be read in the context of the relevant observations of the Education Commission as quoted below (on whose report the above policy statement was formulated):

> In a multi-religious society like ours, it is necessary to define the attitude of the State to religion, religious education and the concept of secularism. The adoption of secular policy means that in political, economic and social matters all citizens irrespective of their religious faith, will enjoy equality of rights, that no religious community will be favoured or discriminated against and that instruction in religious dogmas will not be provided in State schools. But it is not an

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7. The National Policy Statement is currently under review.

> irreligious or anti-religious policy. It does not belittle the importance of religion as such. It gives to every citizen the fullest freedom of religious belief and worship.[8]

As for moral and spiritual education, the Commission stated that

> modernization does not mean, least of all in our national situation, refusal to recognize the importance of or to inculcate necessary moral and spiritual values and self-discipline. Modernization, if it is to be a living force, must derive its strength from the strength of the spirit. Modernization aims, amongst other things, at creating an economy of plenty which will offer to every individual a larger way of life and wider variety of choices. While this freedom to choose has its own advantages, it also means that the future of society will depend increasingly upon the type of choice each individual makes. This would naturally depend upon his motivation and sense of values, for he might make the choice either with reference entirely to his own personal satisfaction or in a spirit of service to the community of furthering the common goal. The expanding knowledge and the growing power which modernization places at the disposal of society must, therefore, be combined with strengthening and deepening of the sense of social responsibility and an appreciation of moral and spiritual values.[9]

The Commission further pointed out that

> in an attempt to integrate these moral and spiritual values through education, we should draw freely upon our own traditions as well as traditions of other countries and cultures.... In them, we can find inspiration for social service and a faith in the future. Mahatma Gandhi, for instance - and some other great leaders of thought - discovered the inspiration for their idealism and their passionate striving for social justice and social reconstruction largely from these sources.[10]

India has adopted the system of economic and social development through a system of five-year plans. The Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79) declared:

> Education plays a crucial role in economic development and social modernization. As a key factor in production, it supplies the requisite number and quality of persons needed for various

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8. Report of the Education Commission, 1964-66, para. 1.7.8.

9. Ibid, para. 1.7.4.

10. Ibid, para. 1.7.7.

> tasks and, by inculcating among the mass of the people appropriate attitudes, skills and personality traits, it creates the proper climate for development. By creating a well-informed and educated citizenry, it ensures the effective working of the basic institutions on which the economic and social well-being of the country depends. Education also provides the individual with the major means for personal enrichment and social and economic advancement.

Interaction between value-belief systems and education

That there has been over the years a good measure of interaction between the value and belief systems on the one hand and the educational policies on the other, is evident. The special emphasis on equality of opportunity in the educational system, which has remained a major goal, at least since independence, can be traced to the perception of the social and political forces in the country of the need to correct what the Education Commission called 'a major weakness' of the Indian society in the past, namely the lack of equality and social justice.[11] This perception, along with other influences, had led to the declaration of equality as a major goal of the polity, and this has also influenced the goals and policies in education. Similarly, the emphasis on equal respect for all religions can be directly traced to the tradition of tolerance and acceptance of divergent religions, theologies and philosophies. The Indian educational planners are also quite conscious of the role of education as an instrument for transforming society in desirable directions. With this end in view, the educational goals have emphasized the inculcation of certain values and attitudes, particularly in relation to work and to the application of science and technology, as they have considered that these are desirable changes needed by society to solve its problems and achieve its potential in future.

Self-reliance is another major goal in Indian thinking which has arisen from past experience of and reaction against colonialism and foreign domination. The emphasis on scientific research and advanced training in various fields can be related to this goal. At the same time, the pursuit of individual excellence has been a goal of Indian society since time immemorial. In fact, in our epics and ancient literature, there are many illustrations of individuals seeking after gurus so that they can perfect their knowledge from whatever sources available, and in seeking such knowledge they were willing to sacrifice all they had and to undergo many hardships. Austerity and simplicity in individual living was another major characteristic of Indian society which did not place emphasis on material acquisitions (perhaps not enough

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11. Op.cit. 1 (para. 1.7.8).

emphasis, as it has paid the penalty for this in terms of slower economic development). However, with the large increase in population and poverty, has come to be realized that economic development is vital in order to provide a certain minimum standard of living to every individual. Current goals of society and of educational thinking and educational policy thus emphasize the linkage of education with the world of work and of economic development, but it can be stated that neither the society nor the educational thinkers are in favour of encouraging a consumerist approach or totally materialistic values.

The belief in planning and planned efforts for economic and social development, and the key role of Government in such an effort, are part of the current value system in India. This has led to planned attempts at defining and reaching educational goals, and also to the crucial role of Government in such an effort. It should, however, be noted that India has a strong tradition of voluntary effort in education, and this co-exists co-operatively with governmental efforts.

From goals to policies and programmes

The educational goals set forth above have been reflected in the various educational policies and programmes adopted from time to time. The most significant of these have been the policy of universalization of elementary education and the provision of mass education for adult illiterates Indian society cannot progress towards its ideal of equality and justice until a certain minimum basic education is provided to all its citizens. This fact was very clearly recognized in the Constitution of India itself. It must, however, be admitted that despite very significant progress in quantitative terms, these objectives have not been achieved, primarily owing to the rapid growth of the already large population, but also due to other reasons, economic, social, and pedagogical. Another major programme in the thrust towards equality has been the special provisions made for the poor and backward, particularly for those falling under the category of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Throughout the last 30 years, education of the weaker sections of the community has always received special attention, with a view to enabling their better and faster progress. Similarly, education of girls has received special emphasis. There is also a large provision of scholarships at all levels to poor but meritorious students.

Another major goal of educational policy has been to link it with economic development. With this end in view, a vast structure of technical education has been built up, which provides skills at various levels as are required by the economy. As a result, India has the third largest supply of manpower resources in the field of science and technology, and is a major exporter of trained manpower to other countries. India has also built up a large industrial base, and is self-reliant in many respects. The application of research and education to the field of agriculture has enabled India to

overcome its perennial food problem despite the vastly increased food requirements of the increasing population. It is fully recognized that it is through the application of science and technology, and by linking education to research and productivity, that India can solve some of her basic problems. Education at all levels is geared to these objectives. Some of the programmes in this regard are:

1. Introduction of work experience/socially useful productive work at the school stage of education;
2. Making science and mathematics and compulsory part of general education for 10 years in school;
3. Programme of vocationalization at the higher secondary stage;
4. Expansion of technical and scientific education;
5. Developing centres of advanced studies and research in various disciplines; and
6. Setting up of specialized high-level institutions of technical and agricultural education which integrate higher education, research and extension.

The importance of values in education has been highlighted in the document "The Curriculum for the 10-year School - A Framework":

> Character building and human values. The school curriculum should have a core centering round the objective of character building. The best way to do this is to help the child find the right road for his self-actualization and encourage him to follow it, watching, suggesting, helping, but not interfering. Self-actualization is a strong need in human beings; but the conditions in which the child lives - its social, mental and moral environment - may not be always conducive for the fulfilment of this need. Hence, attempts have to be made to nurture the child to discover its potentialities. Educational activity should be organized in such a way that, always and ever, in each and every task, the child is encouraged to express itself and find its best fulfilment.
>
> Linked with this process of character building is the cultivation of such basic qualities as compassion, endurance, courage, decision-making, resourcefulness, respect for others, the team spirit, truthfulness, faithfulness, loyalty to duty and the common good. These can be encouraged by all curricular activity and particularly cultivated through a programme of physical education, co-curricular activity and work experience. Activities such as social service, scouting and guiding, NCC and the like may be considered as well as physical education, sports, games, etc.[12]

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12. *Curriculum for the ten year school - a framework*, NCERT, para. 2.9.1 and 2.9.2.

Constraints in achieving educational goals

It cannot be denied that the educational goals and the policies and programmes arising therefrom have been found to be beyond the reach of the society in spite of considerable investment of time and effort. As already pointed out, we have still a long way to go to achieve universal education for all children up to the age of 14 years (see Appendix A) and for all adults. However, it should be stated that absence of literacy or 'school education' by itself does not mean that the people are not 'educated'. There is a strong oral tradition, and the wisdom of the people educated in this oral tradition has been amply demonstrated in several areas, not least in their political maturity, which has ensured the success of the democratic process as in the recent elections to the National Parliament.

Another set of constraints relates to the programmes of vocationalization, mainly due to lack of effective demand at appropriate wage rates for the output of the system. It must also be stated that despite efforts at the introduction of non-formal schemes of learning, we have still a long way to go to achieve what could be described as a truly learning society with very flexible arrangements for learning opportunities for different groups and different ages. There are obviously many constraints and difficulties which have to be overcome in the achievement of these goals. These could be classified as the problem of leadership, the problem of resource, the problem of administration and organizational arrangements and the problem of pedagogy. Leadership at the policy-making level is provided nationally by the Central Advisory Board of Education, of which the Union Education Minister is the Chairman, and whose members include the Education Ministers of all States and Union Territories in India, and eminent educationists. There are also periodic conferences of Education Ministers of all States and Union Territories. Further, the National Development Council, of which the Prime Minister is the Chairman, and which includes Chief Ministers of all the States and Union Territories, decides on policies and strategies of development in the context of five-year plans, including key decisions and allocation of resources. While there is adequate leadership at the level of policy formulation, considerable strengthening is needed at the implementation level - both field and institutional. The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration has been organizing several programmes to fulfill this need.

Several attempts have been made to mobilize resources for education and to utilize them in an optimal manner. But the requirements of development are so large that there have to be larger and continuing efforts in this direction, including a search for cheaper alternatives.

The problem of administration, including the process of decision-making, is central to any attempt at reform of the educational system. There is a need for fostering an administrative culture that believes in individuals and

decentralization as well as in participatory management. Many of the administrative and organizational structures have been inherited from pre-independence days, and are based on principles of centralization and bureaucratic controls. The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration recently carried out surveys of educational administration in all states in India, and these indicated the awareness of the difficulties and the desire on the part of the state governments concerned to overcome them, to bring about suitable changes and to streamline administration.

Obviously, in the removal of the deficiencies and constraints pointed out above, the process and mechanism of decision-making has an important role to play. No educational reform can be successful unless it secures the co-operation of parents and of students as well as teachers. Any educational plan that concentrates heavily on the rational analysis of costs and benefits and of allocation of financial resources, without taking the perceptions of those involved in the educational process into account, has a very limited chance of success. The decision-making process which is central to all educational planning has therefore to be highly participative, and should involve at various levels all those affected by the decisions.

Above all, there is the problem of pedagogy. Unless the students, the parents and the society as a whole perceive the education to be useful and relevant the educational goals and policies, however well formulated, and the educational programmes, however well conceived, cannot be effectively implemented. It must be admitted that the stranglehold of the examination system, coupled with the linkage of job opportunities with performance in the examination system, has proved a major constraint in achieving the larger goals of education as stated above. Efforts at examination reforms, as well as efforts to make the content of education and teaching methodologies more relevant to the needs of the students and more appropriate to the goals stated above, must form a major element in any strategy for achieving these goals and in the implementation of educational policies.

The future

Educational goals and policies are subject to periodic review and change in accordance with the changing requirements of the society. The National Policy on Education in India which was formulated in 1968 is now under review, and for this purpose the Central Government has initiated wide-ranging consultations. The policy also comes under periodic review in the course of the formulation of five-year plans, but while the emphasis may have shifted here and there, by and large, the goals and policies of education in India have remained the same as indicated in the National Policy. In the foreseeable future, these goals and policies are likely to guide the development of education. The goals of developing the citizens and of national integration, economic development, democracy and self-reliance are likely to guide

formulation and implementation of policies in the coming years. The main attempt in the future must be in terms of effective implementation, removing the deficiencies that have been pointed out. A major direction would be the adoption of the latest advances and innovations in the teaching/learning process. The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) keeps abreast of educational thinking in different fields and introduces pedagogical innovations in several areas. Some of the areas where innovative practices are being attempted by NCERT are non-formal education for children in the age-group 9-14, mainly intended for drop-outs from weaker sections, decentralization of curriculum, reform of teacher education, examination reform, work experience and vocationalization of education, and re-integration of moral and spiritual values in education. Similar innovations being attempted by other agencies include the development of autonomous colleges, national and social service programmes for students in colleges and universities, and special programmes for adult illiterates.

Issues for discussion

The main issues for discussion have already been mentioned in agenda item no. 4, which lists the various sub-items to be considered under educational goals and the process of development. In discussing these issues, the role of belief systems and values on the one hand and the practical problems and constraints on the other must be examined and the manner in which the belief systems, values, goals, policies and implementation are linked should be scrutinized in detail. In the final analysis, the most important issue is how to improve the effectiveness of the educational system in relation to its goals and the goals of society. Some very specific issues, such as the availability of duly qualified and competent teachers to shoulder the very onerous responsibility, particularly at the primary level, might be linked to the status and emoluments of these teachers, and this might be interrelated to the priority accorded by the society concerned. But this would also be linked to such practical questions as mode of recruitment of primary school teachers. It would be useful to discuss the practical issues in the achievement of educational goals in these specific terms.

International co-operation

Unesco could play a useful role in focussing attention on the linkages between the goals and aims of the society, its educational policies and programmes, and actual problems of implementation. There is a need for the exchange of international experience in the formulation of goals and policies and their implementation. Such an exchange would assist the respective countries in the region in avoiding costly mistakes and in introducing reform in desirable directions. No doubt such exchange of experience already exists. Unesco can play a leading role in having the linkages between goals, policies and implementation thoroughly examined in the context of each country so that the lessons learned by such an

analysis may be available to others as well.

Appendix A

PROGRESS OF ENROLMENT AT THE PRIMARY STAGE
(CLASSES I-V)

(in millions)

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51	13.77 (60.6)	5.38 (24.8)	19.15 (43.1)
1955-56	17.53 (68.3)	7.64 (31.0)	25.17 (50.0)
1960-61	23.59 (82.5)	11.40 (41.4)	34.99 (62.4)
1965-66	31.18 (93.1)	17.74 (56.5)	48.91 (76.7)
1970-71	35.74 (95.0)	21.30 (60.5)	57.04 (78.6)
1973-74	39.39 (100.1)	24.54 (66.4)	63.93 (83.8)
1977-78	43.19 (99.3)[2]	26.95 (65.4)[2]	70.14 (82.8)[2]

N.B.: 1. The figures in parenthesis indicate the percentage enrolment of the age-group population.

2. Enrolment percentage figures for 1977-78 are based on the revised population projections of the Registrar General of India.

Nature and scope of educational goals in Indonesia

In accordance with the content of the Broad Outlines of the State Policy (GBHN), the goals of development in the field of education and of fostering the younger generation can be stated as follows:

1. To improve educational quality so that the system of education produces men who believe in God Almighty, who are intelligent, skilful, and highly conscientious, and who possess a strong personality and high spirit of nationalism so that they are able to develop themselves and, in co-operation with others, be responsible for the development of the nation;
2. To expand educational opportunities, in accordance with the philosophy of equal opportunity in education for all;
3. To promote relevance so that the educational system is able to produce a workforce for development that is relevant to the process of national development, quantitatively as well as qualitatively;
4. To prepare the young generation as future implementors of national progress and development by equipping them with knowledge, skills and leadership abilities, physical health and creativeness, patriotism and idealism, and integrity and good conscience; and
5. To promote efficiency and effectiveness of management in order to ensure the attainment of the goals of development in the field of education, and to ensure the fostering of the younger generation within the framework of achieving the overall goals of national development.

If we look at the goals closely, there are four major areas under which the goals are classified - quality, equality of opportunity, relevance, and efficiency and effectiveness. The above stated goals can also be formulated in another form, under categories such as moral and religious, political, cultural, social, and economic, as follows:

moral and religious: produces men who believe in God Almighty and who are highly conscientious.

political : produces men who possess a high degree of nationalism and sense of patriotism and idealism.

social and cultural: 1. provides equal opportunity for all citizens to acquire an education;
2. produces men who are intelligent, skilful, and who possess strong personality, leadership abilities, good physical health and creativeness.

economic : 1. produces a workforce for national development;
2. develops efficiency and effectiveness in the system.

Interaction of value and belief systems with educational goals

Historical trends have a significant impact on goal formulation. During the colonial period, education was meant for those representing the upper group of people in the society. Besides, education was primarily aimed at producing civil servants for the colonial government. Now education is designed for all people as reflected in the goal of providing equality of opportunity to education. In addition, education is meant to develop the whole personality of the learners and to meet manpower needs in all sectors and levels of development.

The value and belief system in society interact with educational goals in two ways. On the one hand, the value and belief system constitutes a major force in shaping educational goals. Belief in God, humanity, nationalism, democracy, and social justice are all reflected in the Indonesian educational goals. In the other hand, certain educational goals also reflect a view to gradually changing the value and belief system in the society. Creativeness and efficiency are examples of values which the present education system would like to enhance.

Reflection of educational goals in educational policies

As mentioned earlier, the educational goals specified in the first section of this paper can be classified under four major goal areas - equality of opportunity, quality, relevance, and efficiency and effectiveness.

A number of basic educational policies has been laid down by the government to improve the capability of the existing education system:

1. Increasing the enrolment capacity of the existing system

This includes:

a) increasing the enrolment capacity of existing schools;
b) developing open schools and small school systems;
c) expanding the out-of-school education system; and
d) increasing the participation of the private sector in education.

2. Improving the teaching/learning system in schools

   This includes:

   a) standardizing the curriculum and its evaluation procedure;
   b) developing new teaching/learning strategies, such as the modular instruction system in the Development School Project;
   c) improving the system of providing professional support to teachers/training as well as supervision; and
   d) improving the physical and educational facilities of existing schools.

3. Improving the implementation of 'non-academic' subject fields

   This includes the improvement of religious, moral, aesthetics and physical education in schools.

4. Intensifying the implementation of skill education

   This includes the organization of skill education in general schools, primary as well as secondary.

5. Increasing the participation of industries world of work in planning and implementing the curriculum

   This especially occurs in the planning and implementation of vocational school and skill education curricula.

6. Reorganization of teacher education

   This includes the restructuring of both the curriculum and the organizational set up.

7. Improving the planning and management system of education

   This includes both administrative and classroom management, such as interaction between central and regional planning institutions, integration of junior vocational schools into junior general schools, development of modular and credit system in schools, etc.

If we compare the statements of educational goals with the educational policies laid down by the government, we can then draw the relationship between the two as follows:

a) Increasing the enrolment capacity of the existing system is meant to achieve <u>equality of opportunity</u> through both coventional and innovative ways;

b) Improving the teaching/learning system of all subjects (academic and non-academic) is meant to achieve better <u>quality</u> of education;

c) Intensifying the implementation of skill education and increasing the participation of industries are meant to achieve <u>relevance</u> of education to the society and the world of work;

d) Improving the planning and management system of education (at both the administrative and classroom levels) is meant to achieve efficiency and effectiveness of the education process; and

e) Restructuring of teacher education (in both curriculum and organization) is meant to achieve both equality of opportunity and quality of education.

In other words, all the educational goals have been reflected in the educational policies laid down by the government.

Problems and constraints in meeting major educational goals

In spite of the enormous efforts which have been made to improve the system of education and to solve a number of critical problems, several problems and constraints still exist and need further attention.

The following are major problems and constraints being encountered in meeting each of the major educational goals:

Major goal area	Problem area/constraint
1. Equality of opportunity	a) lack of capability of the pre-service teacher education institution to produce large number of teachers as required;
	b) reluctance among teachers to teach in the remote areas;
	c) mechanism for running open school system in an effective and feasible manner has not yet been found;
2. Quality	a) lack of qualified teachers in the sense that a considerable number of them teach subjects which are not suitable to background and specialization;
	b) limited number of facilities for the field supervisors available;
	c) regional disparities in educational facilities;
3. Relevance	a) difficulty in estimating the future needs of manpower in various sectors;
	b) mechanism for running skill education involving school and industries has not yet been found;

4. Efficiency

a) discrepancy in capability between central and regional officials;

b) lack of operation job descriptions for various kinds of officials; and

c) existence of 'bureaucracy symptom' among the various levels of officials.

It is expected that the implementation of the foregoing educational policies laid down by the government would gradually solve the problems and eliminate the constraints specified above.

Process and mechanism of decision making within the framework of educational development

1. Introducing a new technique/system

There is a growing tendency in Indonesia to begin any changes in the field of education with some form of small-scale pilot studies. Based on the results of continuous evaluation, improvements and adjustments of the new system are made during this developmental stage of the programme. Prior to the 'final' evaluation of the new system, a pre-dissemination step is carried out in which the new system is further tested in schools other than the pilot ones. Finally, based on 'final-total' evaluation, a decision is made on how the new system would be disseminated throughout the country.

This long process of decision making through the use of pilot and pre-dissemination studies seems to be less adequate when used to find immediate solutions to pressing problems. However, it is felt that this strategy has an effective impact in the sense that it does provide a good opportunity for educators to refine and adjust the new system before it is disseminated throughout the country.

2. Improving the existing educational practices

Curriculum implementation in various school levels are continuously monitored and evaluated by the Directorate General of Basic and Secondary Education in co-operation with the Office of Educational and Cultural Research and Development involving officials from the regional offices of education. Based on the results of monitoring and evaluation, potential actions are identified and selected to improve the existing practices.

Continuous monitoring and evaluation of the existing educational practices has provided the decision makers with information regarding areas in which immediate action is needed to improve the implementation of the system. However, it sometimes happens that monitoring and evaluation becomes an end in itself in the sense that less follow-up activities have been made to actually organize actions to improve the existing practices on the basis of evaluation findings.

The future of educational goals and policies

The four major educational goal areas specified earlier - quality, equality of opportunity, relevance, and efficiency and effectiveness - would be maintained and even strengthened in the future. However, the emphasis would vary from period to period. Up to 1978/1979, for example the emphasis was put on equality of opportunity, whereas beginning 1979/1980 quality has been given significant attention without neglecting equality of opportunity.

There have been recent studies in the field of primary, secondary and teacher education concerning their future development. Each of the studies discusses the goals and issues encountered, and suggests strategies for the development of the respective subsector of education for the next 8 to 10 years. All the strategies proposed in each study have been linked with the purpose of meeting the four educational goal areas.

In 1978, a commission for educational reform was established to explore and plan the national education system for the future, involving educational structure, curriculum, enrolment, etc. The commission is still working on this task, taking into account the results of the subsector studies and present development activities taking place in the field of education in Indonesia.

Suggestions for developing international and regional co-operation in this area

In the light of the main theme of the workshop, issues which need particular attention, among others, are:

1. possible conflict between two or more goal areas in the educational policies, such as policies for improving quality and at the same time providing equality of opportunity for all;
2. policies for intensifying skill education versus general education programmes for improving relevance of education in the continuously changing society; and
3. possible impact of using modern educational technology on the attainment of broader educational goals involving cognitive, psychomotor and affective domain.

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JAPAN

The clarification of the concept of educational goals has been presented in Chapters I and II, Part 1, in the report of a study by a Working Group in Asia, entitled Educational Goals, Aims and Objectives, issued by National Institute for Educational Research, Tokyo, Japan, 1974.

While taking into consideration the above study, this paper translates the concept as one regarding the objectives of educational policy at the national level.

The primary educational goals are found in the Japanese Constitution (1946) and more concretely in the Fundamental Law of Education (1947). Our Constitution establishes equal opportunity in education and the respect for academic freedom, and in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution the Fundamental Law of Education indicates particular educational goals, aims and objectives, including home education and social education as well as school education. The Constitution and this Law are the general principles and standards for other acts and rules concerning education. (Concerning the Constitution and the Fundamental Law of Education of Japan, see the National Statements on Educational Aims and Objectives, Japan. MEEAO/Final Report, Appendix 6, 1969).

In the course of time, the impact of rapid socio-economic change which occurred in Japan has greatly influenced the educational goals indicated in the Constitution and the Fundamental Law of Education. Consistent with the national policy to give the highest priority to economic development, and reflecting "The Plan to Double National Income" (1960) which stressed the advancement of people's ability and the promotion of science and technology, an educational policy to promote science and technological education in schools and to expand the facilities of science and technology in higher educational institutions was carried out from the latter half of the 1950's to the first half of the 1960's. During that period, voices calling for educational reform corresponding to such national policies continued to be heard.

However, from the latter half of the 1960's onward, with a retreat from the worship of a high growth rate in the

economy and an increased GNP, the policies of balanced growth of the economy, post-industrialization and promotion of a high quality of social welfare came to be predominant. Thus, industrial policy shifted from stressing heavy industry to knowledge-intensive industry. With such changes occurring in economic policy, educational policy has also been much discussed in every corner of society.

In 1971, to cope with this situation, the Central Council for Education, the most important of the 18 advisory bodies to the Ministry of Education, drew up a report on basic policies for the future comprehensive expansion of school education in elementary, secondary, and higher education.

The Ministry of Education accepted the recommendation of this report, and is now working to promote new educational policies along the lines suggested by the report. These new policies have come to be known as the third major educational reform after the reforms of 1872 and 1947.

In 1974, the same Council submitted a report on international exchange in education, science, and culture to the Ministry of Education. Further, in 1976, the Curriculum Council, another advisory body to the Ministry of Education, submitted a report concerning improvement of the content of education, recommending careful selection of course content in order to provide children with a rich school life. In 1977, the Ministry of Education, on the basis of this report, announced revised teaching guidelines for elementary and lower secondary schools. The educational goals indicated in these reports and recognized in recent policies may be classified as the following five goals.

1. Diversification of education. From long ago our country has assimilated Chinese, Indian and other Asian cultures, and has finally built her own culture absorbing new western culture in the modern era. It has cultivated a feeling of commonality and identity among our people. This is no doubt considered to have worked efficiently to raise national consciousness and to produce national progress. But in these days, characterized by rapid change and increased international exchange, it is thought that a country would get more benefit by having men of strong individuality and special ability.

For these reasons, diversity of education is now eagerly promoted. As part of the new diversification, the above mentioned reports have stressed moral and physical education, aimed at bringing up harmonious men in spirit, mind and body. They have also stressed the selection of the content of education, and the entrusting of power to local authorities and to individual schools to organize curricula suitable to their own condition and aimed at developing creative ability. Further, they have stressed a reduction of the teaching hours for each subject to only the essential and fundamental ones, thus requiring the teachers' spontaneous endeavours and contrivances. To sum up, we can say that our educational authority is now promoting the policy of diversification and

decentralization of education. Strengthening of financial support for private schools, another policy of the third educational reform, also expresses the policy of diversification of education.

2. Universalization of education. In a general sense this has no meaning now in Japan, for about 95 per cent of Japan's youth attend high school. Therefore it has long been recognized that any pupil should receive education according to his ability and aptitude. Selection of the content of education and reduction of teaching hours will serve this purpose. Among many efforts, the most noteworthy are the promotion of special education for the handicapped, and the increased quality of teaching staffs and their salaries.

With regard to the former, it has become the obligation of every local body to provide enough facilities for the severely handicapped so that all may attend school. With regard to the latter, there will be a re-examination of the teacher certification system, of the practical training of new teachers, of in-service training and of the recruitment of teachers, and a drastic improvement in teachers' salaries as well as other measures. In 1974, an Act to attract competent persons to the field of education was passed, and since then teachers' salaries have risen in comparison with those of public servants in general.

3. Relevance of educational contents. Fundamental human rights, the right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, equality under law, the right to receive education equally, academic freedom and the maintenance of peace and the promotion of culture are clearly stated in the Constitution. And character building, love for truth and justice, respect for the value of the individual, respect for work and responsibility, the bringing up of a healthy nation in mind and body with the spirit of independence are all stressed in the Fundamental Law of Education.

These declarations sound lofty and are universally valid, but in the course of time, the need to adapt these general educational ideals to the particulars of the traditional Japanese cultural milieu has been strongly felt. One example is the report entitled "The Image of the Ideal Japanese" which was submitted by the Central Council for Education to the Ministry of Education in 1966, and in which was stressed righteous patriotism, veneration of the symbols of the country, and the development of excellent national character in addition to these lofty and universal ideals.

The report of 1971 also more clearly indicated this need, saying that we should promote our own educational reform without blind adherence to the model of an educational system in any foreign country, and stressing that the principle of 'democracy and rationalism which are the two pillars in modern civilization' should be adapted to the conditions of the country. Another example is the reorganization, expansion, and improvement of the educational content in Japan's universities. Recently the Ministry of Education set up a

section of planning of higher education in response to the discontents of students.

4. Learning society. These days, the necessity of integrating school education with social education is being increasingly felt. The report of 1971 stressed lifelong education, and proposed that schools be required to make clear their positions towards both home and social education.

The proposal of the report to establish a long term educational plan can be understood from this point of view. In the context of this plan, the special training schools which provide general cultural courses and various vocational courses as social educational institutions of post-secondary education are being expanded, and the broadcast university, now in the experimental stage, will also commence operation in the near future.

5. Bringing up international minds. Under the circumstance of the rapid increase of economic, technical and cultural exchange in the world, it is necessary to have not only a patriotic mind but also an international mind. It is thought that the security and prosperity of any country, or the world for that matter, cannot be guaranteed without bringing up men of such thinking.

In fact, such men as are conscious of the welfare and happiness of all human beings and act to these ends are indispensable now. The 1971 report stressed the necessity to strengthen education for international understanding and the nourishment of international minds.

Assessment of the functioning of the educational system to meet policy objectives

Concerning the assessment of the functioning of the educational system, it would seem that nos. 1, 2, 3, and 5 of the educational goals have been largely realized, although there are still matters left to be solved.

However, as the third educational reform cannot be done in one stroke but rather must advance steadily, it is thought to be inappropriate to assess its achievements at the present time. Only with regard to no. 4 above, namely learning society, does the educational system not meet the task well. There is still dispute concerning the idea and concept of learning society and how to realize it.

Today, not only school education, but also social education and training within private companies is developing rapidly. Nevertheless, none of them seems to have been integrated. This is a task still to be tackled.

Major constraints and bottlenecks in policy implementation

Concerning major constraints and bottlenecks in policy implementation, the following two problems must be pointed out. First, there is the conflict, mainly in connection with political ideology, between the ruling party and opposition parties and between pressure groups in the processes of policy

making. These conflicts are often visible especially in making policy on educational ideals, aims and objectives, contents, method and administration. Therefore these conflicts continue in the implementation of policy, and smooth performance of the policy is apt to be hindered. Second, there are practical facts which sometimes produce results contrary to the intention of the policy. Take, for example, the policy of decentralization, aiming at bringing diversification of education. This has certainly brought good results, but at the same time it has also brought more uniformity in education due to our social, political, cultural and historical conditions. Once, each of the higher educational institutions over which government had strong control, had considerably unique individual character because the government had attached some particular ideal to each institution. But now, since the Government has slackened its control and granted broad autonomy, existing government higher educational institutions have come to have the evil inclination to reduce their individuality, and to follow the example of the prestigious universities, and as a whole may be said to have lost their diversity.

Estimation of the efficiency of the decision making process

In government offices, in a private company, or any other enterprise, decision making is generally done by agreement of the majority of the members. Nay, it is often done even from the bottom up and in this case leaders are only symbolic beings.

One-way orders from the top may not bring good results. In such a social climate, decision making is generally apt to take time. But once a decision is made, its implementation will be done firmly and swiftly, though, as mentioned before, a conflict based on ideology may continue to exist, and to affect the process of decision making and its implementation.

Future information/communications mechanism or systems of incentives

The following new measures have been taken by the Ministry of Education.

1. Pilot experimentation of new school systems

As the third educational reform cannot be carried out in one stroke, the Ministry of Education decided to launch pilot experiments over content, method and system beyond the frame of the present educational system. The number of schools concerned with these experiments is around 30.

2. System of educational monitor

The Ministry of Education plays an administrative role in a wide field from education to science and culture. Therefore, in order to perceive and grasp the actual situation of education, and in order not to create a gap between the administration and the actual conditions of education, the Ministry of Education has established a system of educational

monitors who present their opinion on education directly to the Ministry. They are of different ages, sexes and professions, and their term of service is two years. Their numbers are now 1,000.

3. System of designated schools

In addition to the pilot experimentation, the Ministry of Education and the Local Education Board have designated schools to carry out experiments mainly aiming at the reform of educational content, method and guidance. There are several hundred of these designated schools.

4. Computerization of educational information

The Ministry of Education is now establishing a national network of educational information by utilizing computers to respond swiftly to any change in educational conditions.

5. Establishment of the Section of Educational Research and Development and the Centre of Promotion of Educational Reform

The Ministry of Education has established these two organizations and entrusted promotion of the third educational reform to them.

The following topics or issues are suggested for the consideration of the meeting:

1. A study of the staff members at the lower administrative levels

In order to make education contribute to the development of the individual and society, the setting up of suitable educational goals, aims and objectives and formulating a policy to realize them are necessary. And the proper enforcement of the policy is considered to depend largely on the quality of the staff, especially on that of the staff at the lower administrative levels. Therefore a study of such staffs, and of their training, re-training and recruitment, should be undertaken.

2. Organization of regional co-operating research on education

Educational goals, aims and objectives are the most fundamental problems in education. To determine proper goals, aims and objectives, continual research and study on the matter is considered to be indispensable. For such research to produce good results, it would seem more useful to advance research by regional co-operation, seeking the wisdom of the many.

Goals and objectives

The fundamental principles of the Malaysian Educational System is summed up in the preamble of the Education Act of 1961 (the main statute currently in force) which states that "the education policy of the Federation .... is to establish a national system of education which will satisfy the needs of the nation and promote its cultural, social, economic, and political development .... and for the progressive development of an educational system in which the national language is the main medium of instruction."

In 1971 new measures were included in the official formulation of the "Aims and Objectives of Education in Malaysia" which reads

"Whereas in accordance with the Rukunegara (the national ideology), our nation, Malaysia is dedicated to

1. Achieving a greater unity of all her people;
2. Maintaining a democratic way of life;
3. Creating a just society in which the wealth of the nation shall be equitably shared;
4. Ensuring a liberal approach to her rich and diverse cultural traditions; and
5. Building a progressive society which shall be oriented to modern science and technology.

Now in order to achieve these ends, it is hereby declared that the goals of education in Malaysia shall be:

1. to foster effective communication and understanding among the peoples of Malaysia;
2. to develop the appreciation of the traditions, cultures and values of our society;
3. to enable every individual to have equal opportunity to contribute effectively to the progress of the nation;
4. to develop a balanced personality in each individual by providing for the maximum growth of the aesthetic, moral, physical and intellectual qualities necessary for better living;
5. to develop the necessary skills appropriate to the demand of scientific and technological advances in a rapidly changing society; and
6. to cultivate the spirit of internationalism."

The educational development plan, which is part of the national five year development plan, is designed to facilitate the eventual achievement of the above goals, which is in line with the New Economic Policy. The New Economic Policy introduced in 1971 aims at eradicating poverty irrespective of social groups, as well as accelerating the process of restructuring society to remedy economic imbalances.

Therefore the focus of the goals for education during the period 1976-1980 are

1. Consolidation of the education system to promote national integration and unity through
   a) the phased implementation of the National Language as the main medium of instruction in schools;
   b) closing the gap in educational opportunities among regions and races; and
   c) the eventual integration of the educational system of the East Malaysian States with the national system.
2. Orientation and expansion of the education and training programmes towards meeting the manpower needs of the country through
   a) improved co-ordination of these programmes;
   b) a sharper definition of their objectives and methods; and
   c) expansion in areas of critical manpower needs
3. Improvement of the quality of education and increase in its effectiveness for nation building through
   a) reduction in wastage rates;
   b) more intensive evaluation; and
   c) improvements of curricula, teaching methods and teacher/pupil ratios.
4. Improvement of the research, planning and implementation capability to meet the above objectives.

It is therefore to be noted that education in Malaysia in considered a social force interwoven in the social, economic, and political development process of the country. Therefore, in the formulation of educational aims in 1971, the importance of human values other than those strictly aimed at economic modernization, viz. social, cultural, moral and religious values were also included. The aims and objectives of education for the Third Plan Period (1976-1980), however, besides taking these values into consideration, also aim at economic modernization of the country. Malaysia had chosen economic progress as the ideal, and the cure for most ills. For Malaysia feels that by reducing economic inequality it would also reduce social inequality, if no other severe forces, such as war or natural catastrophe, intervene. In the words of Myrdal ".... social inequality is tied to economic inequality in a mutual relationship, each being cause and effect to the other. Greater economic equality would undoubtedly tend to lead to greater social equality. As social inequality is quite generally detrimental to development, the conclusions must be that through the mechanism also greater equality would lead to greater productivity." Therefore, the general focus of Malaysia's educational objectives is to reduce poverty levels and thus promote national

integration and a greater sense of participation in national life.

The evolution of educational goals

Before independence in 1957, the population of Malaysia was made up of groups of immigrants who came to stay with the Malays, the indigenous people of the country, not for the purpose of settling down here, but with a determination to improve their economy. They stayed here, brought up their children and educated them in schools in this country. Thus there existed schools using English, Chinese or Tamil as a medium of instruction, side by side with the Malay schools.

Before 1956 these schools were functioning in an un-integrated manner. Each went its own way. They had nothing in common, especially as concerns curriculum. As a result, standards differed according to the medium. The content was greatly lacking and the subject matter also differed. Thus students from the four medium schools had different outlooks and varied in standards. This was certainly unhealthy for a nation that was about to be born, and which would have to depend on every one of its citizens.

There was hardly any attempt to formulate a national education policy aimed at creating and fostering a national outlook.

The end of World War II saw a change of attitude on the part of the British rulers as regards education, and this was reflected by the establishment of a Central Advisory Committee of Education in 1949. Committees were also established to study Malay and Chinese education in the country. The recommendations of these committees were incorporated into the Education Ordinance of 1952, which established a system of national schools with facilities for the teaching of Chinese and Tamil.

As Malaya moved towards independence, the stage was set for the evolution of a national system of education. The first seeds for a truly national policy were sown in August 1955, when a Special Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of the then Minister of Education to enunciate a new policy for education. This Committee, known as the Razak Committee, made certain recommendations which were accepted by the Federal Legislative Council and became the basis of the Education Ordinance of 1957.

After the general election of 1959, and the establishment of a wholly-elected House of Representatives, a committee was appointed under the chairmanship of the then Minister of Education with the following terms of reference:

> "To review the educational policy .... its implementation so far and for the future, to consider the national and financial implication of this policy including the introduction of free primary education and to make recommendations."

This committee, known as the Rahman Talib Committee, made a number of recommendations which were accepted in 1960 by Parliament and were incorporated into the Education Act of 1961.

In general, the Rahman Talib Committee recommended that the basic features of the educational system as recommended by the Razak Committee be retained. It further recommended that free primary education be provided in the country's four main languages. At the secondary level, it recommended that "the main medium of instruction will be one of the two official languages although provision will be made for the study of other languages." In all these schools a common content syllabus prescribed by the government was to be introduced. The report also recommended that the school-leaving age should be raised to 15 years.

The government reviewed its secondary education policy and introduced a Comprehensive Education System in 1965. Hitherto the education system had placed great emphasis on the education of the academically inclined pupils. Those who were not academically inclined were given little attention in their overall education, and hardly any opportunity to develop their ability and potential for useful and gainful employment.

The aims of comprehensive education as set out by the Ministry are:

1. to provide a non-selective secondary education for a period of three years after the primary school stage, and to implement adequately the government's policy of raising the school leaving age to 15;
2. to ensure that through the postponement of the selection exercise to the ninth year of a child's education, no child is judged unfit for the type of secondary education that will prepare him for suitable employment;
3. to afford the child an opportunity to sample various types of studies, so that when he reaches the tenth year of education, he will, on the basis of his innate talents and potentialities, be prepared to make up his mind concerning his future vocation; and
4. to provide at the post-comprehensive level a curriculum that will be sufficiently wide in scope to enable pupils to obtain adequate specialized training either for employment or for further technical and academic education.

In 1962 the government decided that the Higher Education Planning Committee should be established under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Education:

> "To review the arrangements in the Federation of Malaya for higher education and to make the recommendations for the development and improvement

of such education in the light of the needs and financial resources of the country."

The task of this Committee was a necessary extension of the work of the 1956 Education Committee,and of the 1960 Education Review Committee, which did not direct special attention to tertiary education, and also to suggest ways and means to ensure adequate supply of trained manpower for the economic, social, and cultural development of the nation.

It is on the basis of these reports that the goals of education were established, and the objectives and planning of education has been in operation up to 1968. The years after 1969 represent a crucial stage during which the education system, hitherto dominantly elitist in character, was transformed into a wider-based endeavour.

The New Economic Policy (NEP) is regarded as a vehicle in which the country could ride through the 1970s and 1980s towards a better future. Its aims are translated in the five year development plans into policies, programmes and projects designed to:

1. generate employment opportunities;
2. increase the productivity and income of all those engaged in low-productivity rural and urban occupations;
3. expand opportunities for those engaged in low-productive activities;
4. expand education and training facilities, social services and the physical infrastructure of the country;
5. modernize rural life and improve the living conditions of the poor in urban areas; and
6. ensure that employment in the various sectors of the economy, and employment by occupational levels, will reflect the racial composition of the country.

Towards the realization of the goals of the NEP, education has a multi-faceted role to play, both directly and indirectly. Education in the medium of the National Language (Malay) is aimed at creating a national identity, integrated and united among its various ethnic groups.

Other policies and programmes of education are geared to enable all Malaysians to participate more fully in the process of national development, such as to meet skilled and semi-skilled manpower needs, to provide better opportunity for education among lower income groups, and to inculcate discipline, and social and civic responsibility.

Impact of educational goals on policies

In order to realize the above goals, the Ministry of Education has instituted a number of measures in recent years. These are:

1. the use of Bahasa Malaysia as the main medium of instruction at all levels;
2. the extension of the Education Act of 1961 to the East Malaysia States; and
3. programmes aimed at providing more educational opportunities for the lower income groups and those in the rural areas. Some of these are:
   a) improving and expanding educational facilities, such as school buildings, and the provision of libraries in all schools in rural areas;
   b) providing free tuition at all levels to all pupils in national schools;
   c) introducing the text book loan scheme for pupils;
   d) organizing health and nutritional programmes for rural schools;
   e) establishing compensatory educational programmes for slow learners;
   f) introducing changes in the curriculum at the lower secondary level, incorporating various science and technical subjects, thus enabling a larger number of students to benefit from earlier exposure to these subjects;
   g) establishing secondary residential schools for rural children; and
   h) strengthening the Planning and Research Division in order to improve the internal efficiency of the system.

Issues and problems

By and large, the goals set by the government have been achieved as planned. The educational system which had catered only for the privileged few has now been made more responsive to the needs of all people. This is clearly reflected in Tables I and II, showing the quantitative development and participation in the field of education. It can also be seen that the growth at the secondary and tertiary levels of education has been extensive in the last few years. This is largely due to measures taken by the Ministry to cut down wastage rate at the primary level, and to improve the quality of education at both the primary and lower secondary levels.

Table 1. Student enrolment at various levels of education 1975-1979

Level	1975	1979	Increase per cent
Primary	1 890 974	1 984 372	4.9
Lower Secondary	642 313	796 557	24.0
Upper Secondary			
Arts and Science	166 260	226 246	36.1
Vocational and Technical	11 904	16 797	41.1
Post Secondary	17 990	25 023	39.1
Teacher Training	7 940	10 965	38.1
Higher Education			
Certificate Courses	1 221	2 394	96.1
Diploma Courses	11 835	14 015	18.4
Degree Courses	15 008	19 062	27.0

Table 2. Participation ratio

Level	1976	1977	1978	1979
Primary	95.3	94.0	93.8	92.9
Lower Secondary	71.8	76.6	79.1	84.1
Upper Secondary	33.1	36.8	39.5	39.7
Post Secondary	3.9	4.5	4.2	4.5

The preceding analysis of aims and objectives shows that Malaysia during the Third Plan Period has been devoting more towards the improvement of the quality of education. By the end of the 1980s, Malaysia's expectations are:

1. to reduce poverty;
2. to reduce unemployment;
3. to reduce illiteracy;
4. to develop high-level manpower (academically qualified in specific subjects);
5. to develop trained and skilled manpower (technicians and craftsmen);
6. to raise productivity; and
7. to stabilize the population.

Educational management and decision making

The Educational Planning Committee (EPC), which was established in 1971, is a high-powered body with authority over all aspects of educational policy and planning. The Chairman is the Minister, and the Secretary is the Director of Planning and Research of the Ministry of Education. Its principal function is to ensure co-ordination of the Ministry's

activities, as well as the compatibility of such activities with the national goals and objectives. All Divisions of the Ministry are required to channel their proposals to the EPC through the Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD). It is the function of the EPRD to analyse such proposals and present them to EPC with its recommendations. In that capacity EPRD performs an overall co-ordinating function with the delegated authority of EPC.

The current educational planning process in the Malaysian context can be considered in three aspects:

1. To ensure that at a minimum cost of resource the relationship between pupils and their schools are made as positive as possible;
2. To improve the relationship of a school or schools in a given region with the best of the educational system; and
3. To improve the relationship of the education system with the country's economy, i.e. to ensure that the products of the education system are most effectively and usefully absorbed in the national economy.

The effectiveness of the planning, management, and evalution functions is amply demonstrated by the formulation and successful execution of the three five-year Malaysia Plans.

Until recently, the Ministry was largely preoccupied with the problems of 'forecasting' educational needs, and thus tended to deal with the internal aspects of the formal educational system. Though educational plans in Malaysia form part of the overall national development plan, the links between the two are mainly in terms of financial allocation. Another reason for some shortfalls in effectiveness is the shortage of highly qualified personnel in the field of educational research and evaluation, and also the problem of retaining them in the Ministry.

Conclusion: the articulation of past, present and future educational policies

Educational policy in Malaysia will continue to be informed by the quest for national unity.

National unity has a special meaning for Malaysia, because, unlike many countries, her quest for national identity only took place not before, but after achieving her independence. National unity, as an idea, remained initially abstract and remote to many. Its gravity and urgency was rarely felt or internalized. But the 1969 racial incident transformed complacency with respect to the idea of unity into a national obsession. The racial incident, which almost destroyed everything that took such effort to build, was a foretaste of the destructive possibilities of disunity if the quest for national unity was not pursued with earnestness and a sense of urgency.

Changes are continually being made, not with respect to the goal, but rather the organization of the means by which the goal is to be accomplished. Hence policy changes are to be viewed not with regard to the goal but rather the means. The goal is fixed, unalterable, and, to some extent, even sacred. The means on the other hand, are flexible, negotiable, and can even be compromised if it is expedient to do so. In the quest for national unity the means are expendable.

Changes with respect to the organization of means in the realm of education are not new. The number of educational commissions (five in all) that have been set up since Malaysia's independence eloquently attest to the relentless quest for an expeditious and efficient form by which the goal of unity was to be realized.

The Razak Report may be regarded as an initial attempt to define a structure for education in the quest for nation-building. The signal contribution of the Razak Committee was perhaps the proposal to establish a national system of education, where,heretofore, none existed, and a common syllabus for all schools, so that Malaysian students of diverse racial origins could learn and be motivated by a set of common ideas. But the education that Razak recommended was only for six years, after which pupils had to sit for the Malaysian Secondary School Entrance Examination (MSSEE). Only a small percentage of the primary six students survived the MSSEE to continue their education at the secondary level.

The Rahman Talib Committee, as noted above, refined the Razak system by extending six years of education to nine. But the MSSEE remained as a mechanism by which the 'academically fit' were sorted from the 'unfit'. The former were channelled into the normal academic stream, the latter into a terminal secondary education programme known as 'secondary continuation school'. Thus, while the Rahman Talib Committee offered nine years of education to all Malaysians, it had the unsalutory effect of unintentionally stigmatizing the very people in whom it sought to sow the seeds of unity. The comprehensive system put an end to that stigma. It abolished the MSSEE and the terminal secondary continuation school and replaced it with a system that broke down the barriers of discrimination erected by the previous commission. Every Malaysian was afforded the opportunity to benefit from nine years of uninterrupted and unstreamed education which was grounded in a common curriculum content and orientation. Thus, if the Razak Committee may be described as preparing the field for a common education system for a united society, the comprehensive system sowed the first seeds of unity by bringing the future citizens of Malaysia to study under one educational roof.

Yet, much remains to be done before a perfect system is evolved. Recognizing that the engine of unity must always be checked, and if need be, overhauled to increase its delivery efficiency, a committee, known as the Cabinet Committee

to Review the Implementation of Educational Policy, was set up in 1974. In 1979 the Cabinet Committee completed its task.

In going about its task, the Committee uncovered a spectrum of weaknesses, ranging from the basic, like the 3 R's, to the complex, like the adequacy of the system in meeting the manpower needs of the country.

The Committee made all in all some 173 recommendations. These recommendations were wide ranging and comprehensive, covering the whole spectrum of primary and secondary education.

The thrust of the recommendations, however, is grounded in the notion of 'efficiency and relevance'. It is an attempt to do away with the inconsequential in education, leaving only those aspects which are relevant and consistent with the aspirations of the nation in its quest for nation-building. Thus, primary education was to emphasize the 3 R's because they are the indispensable ingredients of unity. One must be able to read, write and count before one can speak of meaningful communication and understanding. The Committee, therefore, was of the opinion that in the formulation of primary curriculum the interest of skill should override the interest of the subjects to be taught.

At the lower secondary level, the comprehensive system of practical elective specialization was found to be at variance with the desire to inculcate a general orientation toward practical subjects. The committee felt that to specialize at an early stage was premature and counter productive. What was desirable was that students should be given a general orientation to practical electives at the lower secondary level so as to enable them to make an informed decision with regard to their inclinations and aptitudes at a higher level.

At the upper secondary level, there were only to be two streams - vocational and academic. This, the Committee felt, would be in harmony with the needs of the country for skilled manpower.

In its desire to prolong the tenureship of socialization of young Malaysians, the Committee recommended that the education system should work towards lengthening the nine years of universal education to eleven years. The postponement of the school-leaving age for another two years was felt necessary, not only to foster the cause of national unity, but also as an expression of the responsibility of the government not to release children into the world of work at so young an age.

The Committee recommended that a common curriculum thread should run through the school system linking the primary with the secondary. In this regard, the Committee proposed that the teaching of moral and religious education should become an important feature of every child's education, be he or she a primary or secondary pupil. The essence of moral and religious education is a humanistic and religious

orientation so that the graduates of the school system will be individuals with a moral and religious sense of balance and proportion.

These points are, among others, on the agenda for policy planning and implementation. Sorting these recommendations out in terms of their priorities will not be an easy task to accomplish. Many of them compete for centrality and priority in implementation. And the resources are limited. How best these recommendations can be sorted out is among the questions that currently preoccupy the thinking of our planners and administrators.

Unesco's role

As educational policies evolve, the notion of educational planning must also adapt itself. The diagnosis of present shortcomings of the educational system, and the concern for qualitative aspects of educational development are becoming increasingly important elements in the planning process. Regional and local level planning are also becoming complimentary processes to planning at the national level.

Successful planning of educational development and innovation depends on a thorough understanding of the dynamics of the educational system and of the economic, social and political factors influencing them both from within and from outside the national environment. It is therefore felt that particular attention should be given towards this understanding, and Unesco has an important role to play in initiating research, and in establishing and sustaining means of communication whereby existing results can be better exchanged and utilized.

NEPAL

The formulation and implementation of the National Education System Plan (NESP, 1971-76) was the first comprehensive national approach towards bringing into focus the goals of education and reorganizing educational activities with a view to strengthening the processes of development. The two decades following the inception of democracy in Nepal, in 1951, were characterized by the rapid establishment of a wide range of national institutions, which necessitated a steady supply of trained manpower in different disciplines with various degrees of expertise. During these two decades, a phenomenal growth in education had also taken place, but the relevance of these national efforts had become open to question. Within two decades the number of schools rose from 321 to 7,256, and the number of colleges from two to forty-nine. Meanwhile, the school and college enrolments had increased 52-fold and 68-fold respectively.

The dominant trend in education was to drift along channels of general education. This had persisted more due to lack of opportunities than inherent liking for general

education. Educational facilities in schools and colleges were poor. Out of the 49 colleges then existing, only about eight were in a position to offer disciplinary areas which led entrants directly into professional careers. Only such educational institutions which could run on low initial investments and low regular expenditures managed to multiply. Although certain professional disciplines were becoming quite popular, educational facilities for these could not be provided for without adequate support of state funds. Such conditions existed not only for providing higher education facilities in technical areas, but even for creating minimal general science facilities in the schools. It had thus become quite evident that a thorough planning strategy for educational growth, accompanied by larger financial and policy commitments on the part of His Majesty's Government, would be essential for achieving any type of breakthrough in education.

The NESP (1971) was in effect the culmination of the national determination to initiate and set into action an education system which would satisfy pressing national needs and aspirations. It was the first concerted national endeavour towards charting avenues of growth in education, and establishing its relevance to the national genius and character. It was primarily aimed at 'organizing and disciplining the country's manpower, and at making a judicious choice between immediate gains and future development as well as between narrow interests and broad national objectives'. The prime concern was to implant a decisive shift in stress on education as the most important national investment for consolidating the human resource element towards overall national upliftment, integration and well-being.

While the overall size of the problem was bound to expand faster with time, and while the education structures then obtaining were as yet young and flexible, it was considered prudent to take the tasks in hand by beginning a completely new chapter in the development of education. The new system, in fact, envisaged the building up and bringing into being of a complete educational superstructure within a projected span of time. The changes in the existing system covered almost the entire gamut of educational exercise, ranging from the formulation of the national goals of education, re-structuring educational administration, developing new educational materials and methods, down to the basic aspects of financial resources mobilation and allocations. The apparent absence of deep-rooted educational traditions, and the state of flux which existed in the manners of growth and institutionalization lent hopes that the process of transformation would take place in a smooth and balanced manner. But, as it turned out, the tasks set forth were extremely challenging, if not formidable.

The Nepalese experience during the last decade relating to this national innovative endeavour towards educational development and modernization, does bear timely relevance and perspective to this Regional Workshop on Goals and Theories

of Education in Asia. These experiences, new as they may perhaps be for such a vital field, should prove to be of current interest because they bring into relief some of the basic problems and contradictions in our region. This is particularly so in the context of accelerating the pace of educational development in the face of implicit and explicit constraints to change. Insufficient articulation of beliefs and value systems render considerations on plausible social interactive processes difficult. Financial and technological constraints also require that a balanced equation of growth be gradually evolved. But the pressures of accelerating the pace of economic development demand that education be rendered more productivity-oriented. This invariably means fast growth rates, not only in quantitative terms but also qualitatively. The basic problem at hand centres around developing a proper matching between educational goal-setting and social participative processes within comparatively short time spans.

The National Education System set forth an education policy in the following terms:

1. To further consolidate and strengthen faith in and loyalty to the Crown and the country by harmonizing different economic and social interests; by integrating multilingual traditions into one all-embracing nation; by further encouraging economic and social mobility and by transforming the geopolitical entity of Nepal into a positive, emotional integration;
2. To comprehend the old and the new teaching methods currently in force within the national education system and bring about uniformity in the intellectual traditions so that national solidarity be further developed and strengthened; and
3. To supply trained manpower for national development and to generate a deeper faith in the national heritage and the Panchayat System.

To these ends certain programme priorities were specifically laid down. These included, among others:

1. giving special emphasis and support to vocational and technical education;
2. progressive assistance for schools in remote areas and less-equipped schools;
3. up-grading the teaching profession;
4. cultivating intellectual atmosphere and promoting active student participation in nation-building;
5. progressive assimilation of regional languages into the national language;
6. developing terminal characters to every level of education; and

7. opportunities for higher education to be given strictly on the basis of merit.

The implementation of NESP accompanied a re-structuring of the school and higher education levels and the administrative units. The primary school level was reduced to three years' duration, basically with the aim of imparting literacy to the maximum possible population. Free primary education was later instituted in 1977 with free distribution of textbooks for remote regions. Secondary education was channelled into three types: general, vocational and sanskrit. The sanskrit type laid emphasis on maintaining and developing further traditional sanskrit education up to the highest levels. The vocational channel sought to provide basic vocational skills to high school graduates for possible entry into vocational professions at lower levels. Shortage of lower-level skilled manpower was being urgently felt. In the same manner, to alleviate the gross shortage of low-level and middle-level manpower, especially in the technical fields, speedy development of certificate and diploma programmes in the technical institutes of Tribhuvan University was emphasized.

Regarding the public acceptance of the vocational channel in the secondary school, it may be said that the programme failed to gain proper interest. Slackness in creating appropriate educational facilities necessary for imparting vocational skills to acceptable standards played a large part in its lack of success. Informal apprentice training was preferred to formal schooling if educational targets were to be left to the lower terminal levels. This factor also played a dominant role in the case of certificate-level technical programmes, which were built upon the expectation that a majority of the entrants would enter jobs at appropriate low levels. The basic approaches to applying terminal character to all levels of education were strongly negated by current social values, which point all educational pursuits towards white-collar jobs. It has become increasingly apparent that measures towards effectively linking education to the acquisition of appropriate skills, and to the talent befitting the person, irrespective of family roots and aspirations, would need longer time scales and larger overall policy considerations than purely educational matters.

The National Education Committee was constituted as the apex body for the formulation of policies and co-ordination of the entire education programme. The executive functions for school administration rested with the Ministry of Education, and for higher education with Tribhuvan University. A schedule for financial allocations and resources mobilization was incorporated in the plan. With a view to deriving greater participation in the plan implementation, Zonal Education Committees were constituted to assist in the actual functioning and to generate resources for the programmes in their respective zones. Except for a few technical institutes, a considerable amount of financial support was raised through these zonal committees.

In view of the fact that there was such a popular upsurge in the expansion of education, adequate community support was forthcoming. The zonal committees, mainly due to a lack of appropriate degelated power and functions, failed to develop proper motivation. The entire responsibility of mobilizing regional interests and regional resources ultimately reverted back to the central authorities.

As a result of this situation, the entire burden of financing the regular and development costs of all national educational institutions, especially in higher education, fell upon the resources of the HMG. Financial constraints withstanding, the HMG expenditure on education had risen from 6.71 per cent to 11.99 per cent. Meanwhile, 4.4 times as many students were being enrolled and the per student expenditure had risen 4.3-fold. The bulk of the per student expenditure being taken up by the vastly increased running costs, the outlay on education in real terms actually showed a decline.

The central thrust of the NESP rested on expanding access to education, both quantitatively and qualitatively, at the school and lower technical levels, and basically in qualitative terms in other areas and levels of higher education. The constraints in financial resources led to failure in achieving a satisfactory order of credibility. These factors frustated attempts to upgrade the poorly equipped institutions and to bring about the growth of centres of excellence and regional balance.

It would not perhaps be proper to put the entire weight of default on financial grounds, although every other effort does ultimately hinge upon this. For instance, greater efforts on the part of teachers and students only comes through wider incentive measures and regenerative feedback from the system. Considerable enthusiasm in academic uplift was apparent during the early years of the plan, but it began to flag because the means available appeared to fall short of the target. A decline in the sense of active participation and initiatives among the communities concerned in this case - the teachers, the students and the society at large-resulted in the weakening of the main emotive element of the plan.

In the ultimate analysis, it may be said that educational development, in meaning as well as content, largely depends upon refinements in the processes of diffusion and decentralization of educational administration and management. If a proper participative base is not generated and strengthened, the entire exercise turns out to be purely administrative. Undue importance is laid on administrative decisions, resulting in an undesired shift towards centralized authority. For an uplifting of the values of education and a steady improvement in standards, reversal of this trend is necessary. The ends of administrative planning and policy formulation should be brought as near as possible to general responsiveness and system efficiency at the field level.

It may also be added that as the first step towards educational goal setting and programming, the NESP has indeed made some impressive gains. Apart from giving an upthrust to education in the national scene, it has imparted a realistic sense of dimensions and perspective for future endeavours. Above all, it has brought home the fact that educational values should not be judged in isolation, and can be refined only through simultaneous thrusts in other value systems.

PAKISTAN

A series of reports of conferences, special committees and commissions, and other major official documents, such as constitutions, policy statements, and five-year plans, may be cited to trace the evolution of educational goals and theories in Pakistan. The more important of these documents are listed in the appendix to this paper.

The major educational goals seem to have been reiterated from time to time with varying emphases. The overarching goal of education continues to be the preservation, promotion and practice of ideology of Pakistan based on the value system of Islam. Inculcation of traits like integrity, justice, fair play and international brotherhood finds special mention in this regard. Closely related is the goal of the development of national cohesion, patriotism and selfless commitment to nation building. This is enjoined by the goal of creation of pride in history, culture and tradition, and social and cultural harmony. Another goal of prominence is to instil in students a spirit of social service and citizenship. The goal of creation of competent leadership, trained manpower, and of economic development has, however, always been considered as crucial for peace, progress and prosperity.

The individual has generally been the prime focus of educational goals. All-round development of individual potentialities-spiritual, intellectual, physical and emotional - have found frequent mention. Although it has not received as much attention as the individual, society and fulfilment of its needs has also been a major concern of educational goals. Special stress has consistently been laid on the creation of a literate society, an educated citizenry, citizenship, scientific and technological advancement, and economic development. Invariably, the needs of minorities have been addressed, in terms of distribution of general facilities as well as adequate provision of specific opportunities. The need to make available functional literacy and fundamental education to all citizens, irrespective of faith, caste, colour and creed, and facilities for religious instruction of their choice to non-Muslim students, has always been particularly highlighted.

The creation of Pakistan brought with it the challenges of setting up, without loss of time, an adequate infra-structure

to meet crushing demands for education from burgeoning numbers of people, as well as society's demands for competent leadership in government, business, the professions and industry. The ever-growing population has been making this task extremely difficult in the face of the country's meagre resources. Priority, however, went to the development of higher education to produce high-level manpower to fill the leadership void in the initial years. This was followed by the establishment of a network of institutions for vocational and technical education. Although universal basic education has been a cherished aim of all governments since 1947, it is only recently that a major readjustment of priorities has been affected in favour of primary education and adult literacy.

The question of interaction of the value and belief system with education can only be examined in the light of colonial legacies, the impact of educational models of the industrialized nations, the influence of international aid-giving agencies etc.

The internal pressures, such as rapid population growth, political instability, and economic inadequacies, have allowed little time to formulate and reformulate goals, theories and structures oh the basis of in-depth studies and analyses of the belief system. Also more than deliberate attempts at designing the ways of goal formulation, the compulsions of times and circumstances have been instrumental in changing certain values. Education of girls has been increasing, because it is perhaps the only way to keep them busy. Manual labour is becoming popular because it holds the promise of 'lucrative' employment in the Middle East.

The educational goals have generally been adequately reflected in the policies. Although the goal for universal access to education is far from having been achieved, substantial ground has been covered since the country came into being. Access to education is more widely shared by the sexes, different regions and rural-urban populations. Special programmes have been instituted for disadvantaged groups and backward regions. Concepts like lifelong education, and the integration of education and productive work, are now becoming visible realities. Concern is mounting about increased internal efficiency and improved relevance, to meet the future needs of the individual and society, and to relate the system's output to job opportunities.

The achievement of educational goals and the implementation of programmes is, however, faced with serious problems. Firstly, the educational system itself is not appropriately attuned to its setting, and cannot, therefore, be regarded as a national system. This is primarily due to the acute absence of careful and detailed work in elucidation of the belief and value system, conditions of the economy, and needs of individuals and society. The education system needs to be recreated in the light of the forces of the overall social system in which it is placed.

The other major problem area is the lack of a local management structure. In view of the enormous population,

and limited Federal Government resources, it is virtually impossible to provide adequate educational facilities of the right kind to all citizens without their co-operation. At present, both of these major constraints - the absence of detailed work on the belief system, and the lack of local management structures - are being removed. The rural communities are still plagued with the remnants of feudal tendencies, which make the working of the local government institutions rather difficult. It is hoped, nevertheless, that with the passage of time these institutions and the rural populace will adjust themselves to new role and functions.

The process and mechanism of decision making up till now has, by and large, been created and governed by bureaucracy, mostly at the Federal Government level. On occasions there have been consultations with select groups of intellectuals, scholars, educationists, and experts, but these are usually of very narrow and limited character. Full scale public debate, and participation of various interest groups in discussion on issues of vital importance, remains to be institutionalized. The debate ensues after the policy or plan is launched, which results in serious problems during implementation.

Planning is generally done at the central and provincial levels. The persons responsible for implementation are usually not associated. As such, the organizational and implementational problems are not properly anticipated. Each education policy envisages a major overhaul of the education system, instead of gradual, incremental change. This entails operations of a massive nature, concerning all elements and components of the education system. On the other hand, the time and resources needed are seldom provided.

Planning tools are only rational in preparing and guiding the process of educational change in the extent to which they are relevant to the situation. A plan based on an alien structure, which the local setting has difficulty in assimilating, can be counter-productive. Only those tools which are useable at the local level, and which have meaning for the persons and agencies involved, may be regarded as rational. In Pakistan, the decision making structure and process, as well as content, is getting ready to undergo drastic decentralization.

Vision on the future of educational goals and policies will emanate directly from the vision of the future of Pakistani society. Once the distinguishing characteristics of the individuals who constitute Pakistani society, strictly in accordance with its beliefs and value system, are clearly defined, the goals and policies will automatically become available. These will also serve as a blue print for designing a truly national education system.

The issues deserving particular attention within the theme of the workshop may, therefore, be:

1. Mechanism and procedures for detailed and in-depth study and analysis of the belief and value systems in each Member State;
2. Mechanism and procedures for formulation of goals, construction of theories and designing of structures of education on the basis of study of belief system;
3. Mechanism and procedures for designing of decision making structure and process consistent with the needs of the belief system, particularly at the local level; and
4. Mechanism and procedures for selection of contents, techniques and tools of planning suited to the belief system at the grass roots level.

Appendix A

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PHILIPPINES

Education as an instrument of national development is a declared national policy of the Philippine Government. Two major documents: The Philippine Constitution and Presidential Decree No. 6-A, otherwise known as the Education Development Decree of 1972, have provided the general guidelines and explicit mandates toward specific courses of action in education.

Section 8(4) of Article XV of the Philippine Constitution, provides that:

> All educational institutions shall aim to inculcate love of country, teach the duties of citizenship and develop moral character, personal discipline, and scientific, technological, and vocational efficiency.

Section 2 of the Education Development Decree declares it to be the policy of government "to ensure, within the context of a free and democratic system, maximum contribution of the educational system to the attainment of the following national development goals:

a) To achieve and maintain an accelerating rate of economic development and social progress;

b) To assure the maximum participation of all the people in the attainment and enjoyment of the benefits of such growth; and

c) To strengthen national consciousness and promote desirable cultural values in a changing world."

The Decree also requires educational institutions to provide for a broad general education "that will assist each individual, in the peculiar ecology of his own society, to (1) attain his potential as a human being; (2) enhance the range and quality of individual and group participation in the basic functions of society; and (3) acquire the essential foundation for his development into a productive and versatile citizen."

The Constitutional provision underlines a strong social orientation in education, making it a focus and agent of social change. The Decree, on the other hand, spells out in more specific terms the general direction of national development efforts, and provides a wide range of educational goals and objectives that have social and economic relevance to the Filipino people, making the well-being of the individual the focus.

As President Marcos pointed out in one of his recent speeches:

> Development must be for the people. This is the simple and unadorned thrust of the New Society. If development stands for the good life, this good life must be shared by the people. Development will almost always require an increased Gross National Product, or a better balance of trade, but these alone are not true measures of development. The ultimate yardstick of development in the 70's and 80's will be the extent to which it touches and improves the day-to-day lives and welfare of human beings, of Filipinos.

Present value and belief system: its interactions with educational policies

To Filipinos, education has always been a well-spring of all kinds of benefits that would eventually redound to a better life. A heightened awareness regarding social and mobility aspirations has strengthened rather than weakened the firm belief that Filipinos have in the benefits and social gains that can be derived from securing not only basic education but higher forms of education as well. This belief is borne out by economic researches, which have repeatedly confirmed that more education leads to more possibilities for better income, and that more income allows a better quality of life in many respects. Education has been found to definitely enhance social mobility as it improves a person's occupational options.

Learning has thus been listed as a social concern and as the recommended social indicators - the school enrolment ratios and the educational capital stock - register increases, the implication is that the national higher education attainment rate will rise. The school enrolment ratios, in the Philippines among the highest in the world, imply that it in itself enhances the welfare of the person who receives such schooling.

However, educational needs attendant to a growing population, have called for a redirection of curricular programmes to reflect economic and social reforms. Implementation has necessitated a change in attitudes from low achievement to high achievement orientation. Innovative programmes like the In-school-off school use of community resources (IS-OSA), Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers (IMPACT) and the Distance Study System, to mention

but a few, have brought education to remote and far-flung barrios. The innovations have called for a break with traditional social structures, norms and roles. The realignment of educational offerings with manpower realities and goals, through adoption of a polytechnic programme of education, has been designed to provide the individual with employable skills and managerial know-how in order to make his life creative, productive, and self-reliant.

The training programmes instituted by the National Manpower and Youth Council, in co-operation with schools and private companies, have achieved a wider dimension, as efforts to ensure an integrated manpower development strategy through rural dispersion started to gain momentum with the establishment of all the Regional Manpower Development Offices. Manpower development and employment promotion has characterized the thrust of the non-formal education sector in recent years. Through greater integration of the various modes of education, educational opportunities have been made more accessible to the greater part of the citizenry. Recently, too, the Placement and Accreditation Scheme of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) has helped to retrieve and bring back to the formal education system, dropouts and out-of-school youths. All these have necessitated a restructuring of the values and beliefs of the people.

The present educational system: how it functions to meet goals and solve problems and constraints

Through a broad national reorganization scheme, reforms in the organizational structure and administration of the Education Ministry has been effected. Line functions of the former bureaus were handed over to the Minister to be delegated to the thirteen regions into which the Philippines is divided. Under each regional director are the division superintendents, who administer and supervise directly elementary and secondary courses, while collegiate courses are generally supervised directly by the regional directors.

The implementation of the Reorganization Plan of the Government, with its emphasis on regional development, is expected to bring benefits to the people in the rural areas of the country. Raising the level of production, creating better opportunities for employment through effective use of natural resources, expanding social services for the benefit of rural people, and improving the standards of living are important features of the development programmes and are challenges that the educational system has taken upon itself.

These main thrusts in regional development suggest possible areas for research in regional universities and colleges, and have been recognized as an important and indispensable function for which support must be given. As the regions develop and set for themselves wider and more ambitious targets of growth development and modernization, the problems which require system research multiply. As these problems, whether social or economic, are essentially local

problems, they can be dealt with effectively by locally discovered and designed solutions. Research is essential for the continual updating of curricular contents and for ensuring their relevance to local needs through progressive localization of course contents. Through research, the most appropriate technological and scientific knowledge and techniques can be introduced to the regions for the improvement of the socio-economic conditions of the people. As centres of production and scientific research, teaching, research, and production can be integrated by establishing small production units within the universities and colleges, by sending students to the factories and farms, and by using personnel in research and production with great flexibility. Educational planning in the region proceeds side by side with economic planning, so that educational institutions can become active partners and participants in the immediate and long-range production process in the region.

The private education sector, an integral part of the educational system of the country, has committed its potential resources through a 'quantum leap' programme aimed at helping to accelerate the development of the country's human resources. Three goals have been set up: productivity, equity and the three E's - excellence, efficiency, and effectiveness. Through the 'quantum leap', private education seeks ultimately to make available to all the best of quality knowledge, including the poorest in the barrios through the outreach programmes of each institutions.

Research in the region is co-ordinated by R and D Councils, composed of representatives from institutions of higher learning, research organizations of various enterprises and professional societies, and research institutes under the local governments. The regional R and D Councils serve as the principal centres of all researches, providing leadership in the field of research. Comprising the broad base of scientific research are the institutions of higher learning and the local government research agencies in the region.

In consonance, too, with the concept of regional dispersal of educational opportunities, various programmes aimed at increasing the outreach of services and resources to the children in the disadvantaged, depressed,and underserved (DDU) areas have been undertaken by the Ministry of Education and Culture. One of these priority programmes is the Decentralized Education Planning which received UNICEF assistance. It mobilizes grassroots-level participation in the preparation of sub-national level plans (district, division, regional) in support of the country's social and economic development objectives.

To further maximize the contribution of education to national development, alternatives to the traditional ways of delivering education, not only to those already in the formal education system but also to out-of-school youths and adults, have been initiated by the MEC. The various innovative and

experimental steps taken to expand the scope and clientele of different levels of education, either relaxing entry requirements, attendance or residence conditions, length of study periods or examination procedures, by ensuring an integrated use of modern media, correspondence lessons, self-learning kits and other means of distance teaching, or by facilitating spare-time or own-time studies at the initiative and chosen pace of student, are forms of 'open education'. As mentioned earlier, some of these innovative programmes, like IS-OSA, IMPACT and the Distance Study System, are through with developmental try-outs and are to be implemented on an expanded level depending on evaluation of try-outs. Other programmes presently being carried out in experimental forms are the opportunity schools, nongraded open school system, and the Bayanihan School Programme. It has been observed that educators and parents, who are generally conservative and resistant to changes, only needed to be reoriented to the philosophy behind the programmes to become fully committed to them.

The system of planning, management, and evaluation of educational policies

Previously, educational planning in the Philippines was understood to be nothing more than preparing and providing for the yearly increase in student enrolment, and the consequent need for more teachers, more classrooms, more textbooks, more facilities, and more schools. At the collegiate level, academic programmes were established and offered in response to students wanting to enrol for the course, and course offerings were, as a general rule, patterned after those found in colleges and universities abroad.

The integration of educational planning with the national plan is an offshoot of the need to strengthen the relationship between education and socio-economic progress. The deliberation of the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education (PCSPE) recommended a realignment of educational goals with national and societal needs rather than with the demands of the people, which may be inimical to the requirements of nation-building or with economic and social development.

In pursuance of the recommendations of the PCSPE, Presidential Decree 6-A was issued. This has effected the long sought tie-up between all educational programmes, development, and planning, with the national goals, and established the machinery, procedures, and the means for it. The decree made clear what the relevant national development goals are, insofar as the educational enterprise is concerned, and the ultimate goal of national development plans, according to President Marcos, is the well-being of every Filipino. The Development Academy of the Philippines made the observation that this end-goal can be attained only by maintaining desired levels of health and nutrition, learning, income and consumption, employment, housing, ultilities and environment, public safety and justice, political values and social

mobility. With such significant areas of concern identified, education has planned specific inputs which it can and should contribute to each of the areas of concern, in terms of knowledge, attitudes, values and skills.

As earlier mentioned, curricular redirections have all been planned to contribute to an integrated national effort at development. In this perspective, educational planning, implementation and evaluation are more than just the drafting of a blueprint. This is a continuing process, with criteria or evaluative measures for determining whether education is on the way to reaching the overall goal being planned, side by side with strategies and procedures for more effectively implementing and achieving goals. It is important to recognize, however, that education is 'just one thread in the fabric of national development. Alone, it cannot create development unless it relates itself meaningfully to all other factors of development'.

Vision on the future of educational goals and policies in the Philippines

As we enter the decade of the 80's, our present effort will be largely determined by our vision of the future. And this vision of the future is in turn influenced by the way we have met and faced up to the problems and challenges of the present. The decade of the 70's was characterized by massive reforms in education, all instituted to meet the pressing problem of providing more effective focus on the improvement of the life of the majority of the Filipino people - specifically the out-of-school youth and adults, the rural men and women who require some form of educational service, the agricultural workers, the industrial workers as well as the unemployed and underemployed who have left school. To reach this sector of the population, the more accessible form of non-formal education (NFE) has been instituted, and programmes have been designed to complement formal education. As an organized and systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system, it has provided selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults as well as children.

Designed to strengthen local and national institutions, and concerned as it is with immediate and practical missions, NFE is envisioned as becoming more and more an integral part of the Philippine educational system, developed to a level on equal terms with formal education, both involved in providing a continuing lifelong education that will go beyond solving problems of literacy, rural development, training for occupational skills, and providing information, educational skills and communication.

The social gains made through agrarian reform, the barangay system, and a comprehensive countryside development programme with its emphasis on self-reliance and efficiency, are the thresholds on which the non-formal system of education can develop training programmes. These would be short-term

non-academic and sub-professional, and directed at members of the community outside regular hours or days of formal instruction.

The new Ministry visualizes a scenario where Filipino educators would manage Philippine educational resources as "total learning systems, as a comprehensive knowledge industry, producing a broader range of services than at present, many of them directly and immediately related to the lives of the communities in which the school is located. In this way, the diploma or certificate is not a badge of alienation from one's immediate environment".

The Minister also envisions state and private institutions interrelating in private competition and whenever possible, in the kind of joint programmes and consortium arrangements now existing among some private and government colleges and universities. The 80's might well be a decade for higher education, when the 'quantum leap' for tertiary education - both private and public - could become a reality. Envisioned for tertiary education are harmony of direction and complimentarity of operations between the two sectors, government regulation over the private sector, control and administrative management over the public sector and unified and coherent policies over the tertiary system as a whole. Wideranging government assistance to private education might well see the passing away of that unique Filipino institution, the private profit-oriented university. Government, the Minister of Education and Culture underlined, will spell out guidelines in sufficiently clear terms so that university and college executives, both public and private, can plan in the future.

Issues deserving particular attention

1. The formal education system and the non-formal system as part of a total learning system - a further study of effectively linking up the two systems for continuing lifelong education;
2. Nationalizing teacher education for greater quality control;
3. State policies on higher education and their operationalization - its congruence with national objectives; and
4. Graduate education and greater quality control.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA

An overview of Korean education in the developing context

Korea is currently undergoing rapid economic and social development, and speedily being transformed into a modern industrial society. During the past decade, the economy has grown at an average annual growth rate of 10 per cent.

A rapidly changing society like Korea is apt to experience attendant social problems due to the uneven rates of growth among different social sectors and areas. As investments of limited capital and resources had inevitably to be concentrated on the industrial sector in the 1960's, it resulted in unbalanced growth between the industrial and agricultural sectors, consequently causing a gap between the living standards of the urban and rural population. The waves of rural-to-urban migrants, largely caused by the regional gap, constrained the effects of governmental policy to improve living conditions even in large cities. The rapidity of social change also caused confusion in the value system of the society.

To cope with these problems arising from unbalanced development, a community development movement with a strong driving force called Saemaul Movement (New Community Movement) was started. It began in 1970, and aimed to help villagers create better living conditions by improving their environment, boosting their incomes, and fostering a spirit of diligence, self-reliance and co-operation. Although the movement, from the beginning, has been financially and administratively supported by the government, its fundamental nature is characterized by a co-operative self-help drive based on the initiative and spontaneity of the people. It is generally recognized that the Saemaul Movement has not only made significant contributions to the improvement of material or physical conditions of communities, but also stimulated attitudinal or behavioural changes in the people and has strengthened national unity and integration.

One of the most striking trends in Korean education since the liberation in 1945 has been the quantitative expansion of the school population (see Tables 1 and 2). Primary school children occupied 64 per cent of the total population of school age in 1945, and at present numbers 97 per cent. The enrolment ratio at the secondary level rose from 4 per cent to 56 per cent, at the college level, from 1 per cent to 8.7 per cent. The development of Korean education was more noticeable at the secondary level. The high aspiration of Koreans for education also accounts for the spectacular educational development, particularly in its quantitative aspect.

With the promulgation of the Education Law in 1949, elementary education was made compulsory, on the basis of the principle of equal opportunity. Compulsory education has

been applied to a six-year period, covering the ages from 6 to 12. Although elementary education was made compulsory, many problems arose, making it difficult to realize free, compulsory education in its true sense.

The successful implementation of a series of Five-year Economic Development Plans, started in the early 1960's, has brought about a fundamental change in the economic and social context of Korean education, and led to a substantial increase in educational investment. By the early 1970's, external conditions were supportive of the normal operation of free compulsory education. However, such phenomena as overcrowded classrooms, high pupil/teacher ratios, and overload of teachers as a result of the rapid expansion of enrolment in urban areas, are left to be solved.

The realization in the late 1960's that education is not the concern of students and teachers alone, but a matter of immediate concern to all people, led to the promulgation of the Charter of National Education in December, 1968. Since the proclamation of the Charter, one of the basic principles for educational policy has been to develop education 'with a national imprint' - education relevant to the needs of Korean society, and dedicated by the historical environment peculiar to Korea.

Efforts have also been made to provide for the extension of compulsory education to the middle school (lower secondary), which is expected in the 1980's. Though the entrance examination to middle school was abolished in 1969, mainly due to immediate social problems associated with examination preparation, this action may well be viewed as a step towards the realization of free compulsory education at this level. The abolistion of the entrance examination system resulted in a sharp increase in the entrance percentage of primary school graduates to middle schools - from 59 per cent in 1969 to 80 per cent in 1978. According to the plan, the compulsory education will be offered firstly in rural areas, with nationwide implementation scheduled for the mid-1980s.

The rapid progress of industrialization increased the demand for skilled manpower, suggesting greater emphasis on vocational education. Innovative works are in progress to upgrade the quality of vocational programmes, particularly in the technical field, with more intensive support for the improvement of their facilities.

Higher education is also undergoing reforms in relation to increasing social demand, especially for high level technicians and professionals. Reforms aim to increase the admission quota of colleges and universities, to upgrade curricula, and to develop provincial universities.

Together with economic growth, the social context of education has changed. There arise new social needs, which give new dimensions to the role of education. While the rapid progress of industrialization demands greater concern

with the development of productive human resources the confrontation with communists in the north gives urgency to the role of fostering patriotism and consciousness of national security.

Lifelong education began to receive growing recognition for its potential role in complementing school education, particularly in modern society, which is characterized by an incessant stampede of new knowledge.

All in all, Korean education in the future should be such that it will be effectively responsive to new needs of society, as well as ensuring decent opportunities for all to develop their potential to the fullest measure, through the balanced development of quantity and quality.

The basic principles and goals of Korean education

The fundamental principle of Korean education is a democratic philosophy which guarantees equal opportunity for education, the respect of individual ability and the autonomy of education, as manifested in article 27 of the Constitution. In accordance with the spirit of the Constitution, the Education Law sets forth in more detail the principles and goals of Korean education.

The Article 1 reads as follows: "Education shall, under the ideal of 'Hong-Ik-In-Gan' -- the greatest service for the benefits of mankind - aim to assist all people in developing the integrity of individuals, the ability to live an independent life in democratic society and to contribute towards the common prosperity of mankind". In a word, the realization of 'altruistic ideals' has served as the basic guiding principle and supreme goal of education in Korea.

To promote the achievement of the above-mentioned goals, the following educational guidelines have been drawn up in Article 2:

1. To impart the knowledge and foster the habits needed to develop and maintain physical health while fostering a spirit of perserverence;
2. To contribute toward preserving and developing the autonomy of the nation by nourishing a spirit of patriotism and love for one's poeple;
3. To ensure the transmission of traditional Korean culture while stimulating creative contributions to the cultural achievements of all of mankind;
4. To promote creative and rational activities based on a spirit of inquiry and a capacity for scientific conceptualization;
5. To promote social harmony based on a spirit of trust, co-operation and respect through imparting a love of freedom and a sense of duty;

6. To encourage a meaningful way of life, an appreciation for the beauty of nature and a fruitful use of leisure time through cultivating an aesthetic sense including an appreciation and creative capacity for fine art; and

7. To develop capable individuals with useful occupational skills and a willingness to work hard and live a sensible lifestyle which eliminates wasteful consumption.

Within the broad framework established by these guidelines, specified goals are set for schools of all levels.

The goals of Korean education take their roots in the Constitution and the Charter of National Education promulgated in December 1968. While the Constitution presents democratic ideals in a general context, the Charter defines the ideals in terms of implications for what is to be achieved by education. It serves as a pace-setter for all educational activities by presenting basic directions. In a broader sense, it might well be viewed as reflecting the ideal image of Koreans which education should strive to embody. In this context, it includes a new ethical norm and value system constituting the spiritual guide for the people.

The necessity of having the Charter can be observed in two aspects. In the first place, the nation, in general, had lost value consciousness -- that is, the moral norm of daily life. With the influx of Western civilization during recent years, people often imitated the western way of thinking and living and lost the traditional sense of values and direction, bringing confusion and disorder to the society. Confucianism, the longtime moral backbone of the country, no longer plays a major role in the social life of the Korean people. Thus, the urgency of having a guideline for national ethics and education was felt.

Secondly, there was criticism that almost all educational activities degenerated into the mere preparation of youngsters for entrance examinations into higher educational institutions. Moreover, there was a lack of a sound philosophy for educating students to become good citizens of a prosperous nation.

The goals of education reflected in the Charter of National Education may be considered in terms of

1. The spiritual base for the regeneration of the nation;
2. The new image of the Korean people; and
3. Ideological issues and missions.

In order to develop the spiritual base for the regeneration of the nation, the Charter stresses independence and sovereignty, underscoring the notion that any attempt to contribute towards the common prosperity of mankind must be based on the independent sovereignty of each nation. In this view, education has the goal of fostering independent spirit,

and the consciousness of national identity directed towards the peace of the world. It also notes that this spirit provides a dynamic force for the modernization of the nation.

What is implicated by the new image of the Korean people has three dimensions - individual, societal and national. The Charter encourages creativity and a pioneering spirit to be fostered in each individual by education. Viewed from that dimension, it reflects the need to develop a co-operative spirit. At the national level, it states that creativity, pioneering spirit and co-operative spirit must be effectively combined to enhance the awareness of individual services associated with the task of national development. As such, the goals of education manifested in the Charter befit individual, societal and national needs.

By presenting ideological issues, the Charter clarifies the stance to be taken by the Korean people in relation to communism. As declared by the Constitution, democracy is the ideological base for the nation, and the development of a free democratic society constitutes the supreme goal to be achieved. The very fact that the nation is pitted against the communists argues for the goal of education - that is, not only to enhance the awareness of democracy as an ideal way of life but to strengthen determination to shatter the aggressive schemes of the communists. Hence, the development of an anti - communist posture constitutes an important goal to be achieved by education in Korea. Furthermore, the territorial division poses a unique situation which calls upon education to foster patriotism and the consciousness of national identity. In this situation, education is also responsible for preparing youngsters for the possible reunification of the nation.

Given the opportunity to create the history of their own destinies, Korean people face the staggering task of regenerating the nation. The implications for education are indeed multifarious, defying an easy conceptualization of its goals. The Charter of National Education provided an ideal opportunity to redirect education by presenting the guiding principles of education.

In short, the basic philosophy underlying the Charter is independence of the nation, balance between tradition and progress, and balance between the individual and the nation.

Educational policy orientation and future prospects

Since liberation, Korean education has been trying to realize the ideal of 'Hong-Ik-In-Gan' - altruistic ideals - and during the last decade various policies were carried out following the guidelines laid down in the Charter of National Education, with some modifications and reorientations.

One of the national concerns overriding all educational policies implemented during the last decade was cultivate a strong sense of national identity among the people. Curricula and textbooks were extensively and intensively scrutinized and revised so as to include contents relevant to the society.

Special attention was paid during this period to subjects such as Korean history, national ethics (moral education), and the Korean language. The school curriculum was also enriched with the contents of traditional arts and music, to develop students' appreciation of Korean culture. Programmes for teacher training were also modified toward that direction.

One of the first issues tackled in the promotion of educational development was the entrance examination. In 1969, the competitive entrance exam system for middle schools was dropped in favour of a system of promotion without examination. In 1974, a comparable result was achieved for the high school level by substituting a lottery and allocation system for the previous system, which is being carried out on a gradual basis in major cities.

In view of the rising demand for education and the knowledge explosion, it seems inevitable that compulsory education be extended to the middle school level. When compulsory education is extended as planned, to include middle school in the early 1980's, the trend towards universal secondary education is expected to be further accelerated.

As aforementioned, the quality of education in Korea has sometimes been constrained by quantitative expansion. Emphasis in educational policy was placed on the qualitative improvement of education in the past years. First, school curricula and instructional materials were partially or totally revised to reflect the social, political, economic and technological conditions of the changing society.

To remove the gap in school facilities and to improve the quality of education, standards were established setting the minimum facilities required for schools of all levels. To prepare teachers to perform their changing roles in the society and to keep abreast of the advancement of knowledge, massive in-service training programmes were provided.

The National Institute of Education (NIE) and the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) are carrying out research and evaluation to devise more effective policies.

The idea of community education has long formed a part of our culture, although it was only sporadically conducted by schools. In 1972, the Ministry of Education adopted a policy to support community education in integration with the nation-wide Saemaul Movement. Since that time, almost every Korean school has made efforts to provide educational services to community residents.

The 1978-79 guidelines provide for the enrichment of Saemaul Education through the internalization of such virtuous acts as frugality, the saving habit and service to the community. The guidelines also place emphasis on the development of attitudes towards the preservation of the natural environment as part of Saemaul Education, since environmental destruction has emerged as a new social concern.

In modern life, surrounded by the rapid current of materialistic developments, one tends to lose sight of the true and intrinsic value underlying national identity. Cultivating a strong sense of national identity was a national concern overriding all educational policies in the 1970s.

Spiritual education is an outgrowth of concern about the unique identity and characteristics of Korean society. As mentioned above, new curricula at all stages reflect an emphasis on the moral content of education and values associated with service to society. The programmes for teacher training were also modified in that direction, in the sense that teachers are a key factor for education.

As the Nation's economy is industrialized, there was a growing demand for skilled manpower, particularly for heavy and chemical industries, to which priority was given in economic policy.

An acute shortage of industrial manpower was foreseen throughout the period of the Fourth Economic Development Plan (1977-81). Thus, cognizant of the importance of science and technical education, policy measures were adopted to reform science education.

Basically, supervisory activities shall be carried out along the following lines:

1. To increase the effectiveness of science education through the improvement of contents and teaching methods, with emphasis on experiments and laboratory or shop practices;
2. To develop innovative programmes which will provide more effective learning of basic theories and skills; and
3. To further strengthen school - industry co-operation in a systematic way.

The school can no longer be the only institution to assume the responsibility of manpower development. There is an increasing need for co-operation between schools and industries.

The industrial Education Promotion Law was revised in 1973 to stipulate that industries should co-operate with schools in fostering manpower.

The in-plant training centres represent a significant step in the promotion of education-industry co-operation.

The establishment of sisterhood relations between corporations and schools was also encouraged by the government.

As an extended programme of social education, air and correspondence high schools and colleges (junior) were established, with a view to providing educational opportunities to the out-of-school youths and adults.

Table 1. Number and growth rate of students by educational level and year

Year	Elementary		Secondary[1]		Higher[2]	
	Number in 1 000	Growth rate	Number in 1 000	Growth rate	Number in 1 000	Growth rate
1945	1 336	100	84	100	8	100
1960	3 621	265	792	949	101	1 292
1970	5 749	421	1 909	2 286	194	2 476
1975	5 599	410	3 150	3 772	294	3 756
1979	5 641	413	3 960	4 714	441	5 513

1. Includes students of middle schools, academic high and vocational high schools.

2. Includes students of colleges and universities, graduate schools, junior teachers' colleges, junior colleges, junior technical colleges and junior vocational colleges.

Sources: Ministry of Education, Statistical Yearbook on Education and Education in Korea 1979-80

Table 2. Number of schools and teachers by educational level and year

Year	Elementary		Secondary[1]		Higher[2]	
	Schools	Teachers	Schools	Teachers	Schools	Teachers
1945	2 834	19 729	165	3 219	19	1 490
1960	4 496	61 749	1 693	22 717	85	3 633
1970	5 961	101 095	2 497	51 061	191	10 002
1975	6 367	108 126	3 119	82 672	268	13 758
1979	6 450	159 566	3 359	124 800	322	22 966

1. Includes middle schools, academic high schools and vocational high schools.

2. Includes colleges and universities, graduate schools, junior teacher's colleges, junior colleges, junior technical colleges and junior vocational colleges.

Sources: Ministry of Education, Education in Korea 1979-80.

THAILAND

One of the most important documents indicating the direction or goals of the Thai education system is the National Education Plan of 1977. In this document, under section I, Koammungmhai (purposes), the statement is as follows:

"Under the National Educational Plan, education is conceived as a continuing lifelong process which promotes the quality of life of the citizen, enabling him to live a useful life in society. The emphasis is thus laid upon education primarily as a means to survival, security, and happiness for all in the Thai society. The Koammungmhai (purposes) of education are outlined as follows:

1. To promote respect for one's own and other's rights and duties, discipline, respect for and abiding of the law, religion and moral principles;
2. To promote understanding of and arouse enthusiasm in having a part in the governing of the country under democratic constitutional monarchy, with unfailing allegiance to the nation, religion and monarch;
3. To inculcate a sense of responsibility for the nation, the community, the family and oneself;
4. To realize the collective sense of being Thai and being a part of humanity; to have national pride; to bear in mind national security; and to have a say in the protection of the country;
5. To uphold equality, integrity and justice;
6. To develop good personality, good health and hygiene, both mental and physical;
7. To encourage diligence, professional abilities, economy as well as legitimate co-operation in all enterprises;
8. To develop a sense of communication, mutual understanding and co-operation, search for truth; creativeness, ability to solve problems and conflicts by intelligent, rational and peaceful means;
9. To promote knowledge, understanding and appreciation of sciences, art, culture, nature, environment and resources to the nation."[1]

The first point to note is the emphasis given to 'survival and security'. This is a shift from the previous National Educational Plan of 1960, in which emphasis was given to individual development according to individual

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1. National Educational Plan of 1977.

capacities, and to cultivation of democratic outlook. This shift is in line with the political ideology of the regime in 1977. By then, the democratic experiment and leftwing politics were in a state of decline. The draft of the National Educational Plan had been in preparation for several years, but its finalization came in the period of the Thanin's Government, which gave increasing emphasis to national security and survival.

In Koammungmhai I (purposes), although the statement begins with respect for one's own rights, it goes on to include "duties, discipline, respect for the law, religion and moral principles". The passage was written with the purpose of indicating a shift from individual rights to duties and respect for the law.

In Purpose II, although the democratic ideal is still part of the plan, the emphasis is on "democratic constitutional monarchy", a special brand of democracy in which monarchical institutions play a part. This is in line with the political ideology of the Thanin's Government of 1977, and a contrast to the leftwing politics of 1973-76.

Note should be taken of Purpose III also in which "responsibility for the nation" takes priority, and responsibility for oneself comes last.

Purpose IV again places an emphasis on national security.

In Purpose VIII, one can also perceive the feelings of the time, after a period of frequent street demonstrations. Thus, the author of the Plan did not forget to put in "abilities to solve problems and conflicts by intelligent, rational and peaceful means".

In sum, out of these nine purposes, four deal with the attempt to inculcate a value system conducive to political stability and national security. It is not an exaggeration to say, then, that the political change at the time exercised one of the foremost influences in drawing up the purposes of the National Education Plan of 1977.

Another point to note is that, although in Purposes I and II, the emphasis is on respect and allegiance to religion, there is no indication of any particular type of religion. However, since the majority of Thai people are Buddhists, it is assumed that Buddhism would be the main subject for instruction, with due allowance for minority groups' beliefs. There is thus no specific pressure for any kind of religion, but rather, religious belief, whatever it is, is believed to be an indispensable element of the political stability and national security of the country.

It should further be noted that out of these nine purposes, one is concerned with economic efficiency, one, with the development of personal health, and one with the promotion of knowledge.

In sum, the implicit goals of the educational system of Thailand, according to the National Educational Plan of

1977, apart from professional concern for developing individual personality, professional abilities and knowledge, placed a great deal of emphasis on political security, national unity and survival. This is in line with the political ideology of 1977.

Since most of these nine purposes are concerned with inculcation of a value system, development of personality, abilities and knowledge, they had to be realized through education. The question arises as to how far these educational 'goals' are supported by the present curricula at both elementary and secondary levels. The guiding principles and aims of the new curricula must be examined before a preliminary answer to such a question can be reached.

The present curricula at both elementary and lower secondary levels lay down sets of guiding principles and 'judmhai' or aims at the overall level. Although the curricula were launched in 1978, one year after the National Educational Plan, the drafts of the new curricula had been developed almost independently of the National Educational Plan. The words 'almost independently' are put here deliberately. The National Educational Plan, actually drafted by teachers, supervisors, teacher educators and administrators of the Ministry of Education, is theoretically under the responsibility of the National Education Council. The curriculum design and plan, on the other hand, is the sole responsibility of the Ministry of Education. Thus, two different authorities are responsible for two different sets of documents which are in fact interdependent. However, the Ministry of Education could exert its influence in the final shape of both sets of documents. The linkage is thus with the Ministry. Let us examine the guiding principles and aims of these curricula first before making any comments.

The elementary curriculum of 1978

To understand the new elementary curriculum, it is necessary to look at the guiding principles, as well as the aims and the grouping of subject-matter. The new curriculum lays down three guiding principles:

1. The elementary education must be designed for the mass. This means that everybody in Thailand, whatever his station or background, environment or birth place, should benefit from elementary education. Behind this guiding principle is the concept of diversified curriculum to suit diversified talents, including academic, artistic and manual skills;
2. The elementary education is designed for better livelihood. It should develop life skills for survival and a more satisfying way of life;
3. The elementary education is aimed at promoting national unity. The emphasis is on both regional diversity in terms of arts, customs and occupations, and national unity in terms of one economy and one polity.

Under these guiding principles, the 'judmhai' or aims of the curriculum are grouped into four categories as follows:

1. To promote desirable human attributes such as industry, honesty, and discipline;
2. To promote knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary for better living;
3. To promote a happy and peaceful life. This pertains to adaptation to environment, self-control, and application of religious principles in daily living;
4. To promote good membership of society. This means an understanding of one's own rights and duties, co-operation and self-sacrifice.

These four aims cover psychological, cultural, economic, social and political domains.

To support the four aims, the content of the curriculum is designed in four subject areas:

1. Skill or tool subjects i.e. Thai language and mathematics;
2. Life-experience, which deals with social and physical environment and problems thereof;
3. Character-building, which includes ethics, arts, music and physical education; and
4. Work-experience, including home economics, handicraft and agriculture.

The grouping of these subject areas covers all the necessary domains of social living. What is innovative about the new grouping is the emphasis on work experience and practical skills. In addition, the pedagogical techniques designed for the new curriculum stress pupils' participation and a problem-solving approach.

In sum, although the political aspect is part and parcel of the new curriculum, there is no indication here of any impact of political ideology as accentuated in the National Educational Plan of 1977. On the other hand, the life skills, mostly applicable to rural living, are underlined. In short, there is no perfect harmony between the goal of the National Educational Plan and the main aims of the elementary curriculum. Reasons for this are obvious. The drafting of the new curriculum had been almost finalized by the Committee before the political change of 1976-77. The period of the drafting of the new curriculum coincided with the heyday of the liberal politics of 1973-76. The drafting committee members, however, were not influenced by any political ideology, but were concerned with the problems of the rural and urban masses. Their professional outlook was partly influenced by new curriculum theories and partly by the political events of 1973-76.

The lower secondary curriculum

The lower secondary curriculum of 1976 is governed by four guiding principles as follows:

1. The secondary education has a dual characteristic. It is a general education for all and for those who want to continue education at a high level. It has also a terminal and functional character in imparting occupational skills necessary for living;
2. The curriculum is designed for individual development and self-exploration;
3. The curriculum is designed to be more flexible and responsive to local needs in terms of occupation and professional training; and
4. The curriculum is designed to provide opportunity for students to seek life skills from economic enterprises outside the school premises.

The aims of the lower secondary curriculum are laid down as follows:

1. To promote individual self-exploration according to one's own interest, ability and aptitude;
2. To promote intellectual curiosity, analytical and creative thinking;
3. To foster a positive attitude towards all kinds of occupations, inculcating teamwork spirit and discipline as well as perserverence, industry and frugal habits;
4. To foster honesty, self-discipline, law-abiding aptitude, respect for the rule of the game, responsibility to oneself, family and society, as well as a sense of equality and justice;
5. To promote understanding of one's own rights and duties, unity and self-sacrifice, and problem-solving by peaceful, rational methods;
6. To promote knowledge and skills necessary for improved livelihood, for oneself, one's family and society;
7. To foster personal health, physical and mental, as well as inculcating the right attitude towards public health;
8. To foster a sense of belonging to and caring for one's own local community, a sense of environmental protection, and working towards prosperity and progress as well as promoting the Thai cultural tradition;
9. To cultivate a feeling of pride in being Thai, and allegiance to one's nation, religion and monarchy, with a view to imparting knowledge and faith in the

democratic constitutional monarchy, and a desire to share in a common endeavour for national safety and security; and

10. To promote a better understanding of mankind for peaceful co-existence.

Out of these ten curriculum aims, two aim directly at individual development in terms of abilities; two deal with promotion of occupational skills and economic efficiency; two deal with promotion of social relations; and one deals with physical and mental hygiene and public health. On the whole, therefore, the aims of the lower secondary curriculum are spread evenly among the psychological, cultural, social, economic and political domains. On the other hand, the guiding principles indicate more clearly the new direction of the curriculum, which is oriented towards developing individual abilities and aptitude, in response to the diversified needs of different localities and regions. Among these four guiding principles, at least three aim at the development of occupational skills.

In short, the guiding principles and aims of the secondary curriculum are oriented towards the development of personalities, abilities, and life skills of each member of the Thai society to lead a useful and peaceful life.

Annex I

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

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REPUBLIC OF KOREA	Mr. Kyung-Duk Huh Education Researcher International Education Division Social and International Education Bureau Ministry of Education Seoul
THAILAND	Dr. Saiyut Champatong Secretary-General Thailand National Commission for Unesco External Relations Division Ministry of Education Rajdamnern Avenue Bangkok

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Fellow

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Annex II

AGENDA

1. Inauguration.
2. Presentation and discussion of country reports by the participants.
3. Belief systems, ethical values and educational goals.
4. Educational goals and the process of development
   - 4.1 Social economic development and basic human needs;
   - 4.2 Equity, social justice and social change;
   - 4.3 Cultural identity and cultural development;
   - 4.4 Human rights, fundamental freedoms and individual development; and
   - 4.5 International understanding and the New International Economic Order.
5. Educational goals, policies and perspectives: problems and constraints.
6. The role of regional and international co-operation.
7. Discussion and adoption of the report.
8. Closing session.

Annex III

TIME-TABLE

Tuesday, 15 January

09.30-10.00	Registration
10.00-11.00	Inauguration
11.00-11.30	Coffee/tea break
11.30-12.00	Objectives and organization of workshop
12.00-12.30	Presentation of country papers
12.30-14.30	Lunch
14.30-15.45	Presentation of country papers (cont'd)
15.45-16.00	Coffee/tea break
16.00-17.30	Presentation of country papers (cont'd)

Wednesday, 16 January

09.30-11.00	Presentation of country papers (cont'd)
11.00-11.30	Coffee/tea break
11.30-13.00	Agenda item 3: Belief systems, ethical values and educational goals Introductory remarks by Discussants
13.00-14.30	Lunch
14.30-15.45	Agenda item 3: group work
15.45-16.00	Coffee/tea break
16.00-17.30	Agenda item 3: group work (cont'd)

Thursday, 17 January

09.30-10.30	Plenary session : Reporting on Agenda item 3 Agenda item 4: Educational goals and the process of development Introductory remarks by Discussants
10.30-11.00	Coffee/tea break
11.00-13.00	Agenda item 4.1: Social economic development and basic human needs (group work) Agenda item 4.2: Equity, social justice and social change (group work)
13.00-14.30	Lunch
14.30-15.45	Agenda item 4.3: Cultural identity and cultural development (group work) Agenda item 4.4: Human rights, fundamental freedoms and individual development (group work)
15.45-16.00	Coffee/tea break
16.00-17.30	Agenda item 4.5: International understanding and the new international economic order (group work)

Friday, 18 January

09.30-10.30	Plenary session: Reporting on Agenda item 4 Agenda item 5: Educational goals, policies and perspectives: problems and constraints Introductory remarks by Discussants
10.30-11.00	Coffee/tea break
11.00-13.00	Agenda item 5: group work
13.00-14.30	Lunch
14.30-15.45	Agenda item 5: group work
15.45-16.00	Coffee/tea break
16.00-17.30	Agenda item 5: group work

Saturday, 19 January

09.30-11.00	Plenary session: Reporting on Agenda item 5 Agenda item 6: The role of regional and international co-operation Introductory remarks by Discussants
11.00-11.30	Coffee/tea break
11.30-13.30	Agenda item 6 (cont'd)

Monday, 21 January

10.30-12.00	Presentation, discussion and adoption of the report
12.00-12.30	Coffee/tea break
12.30-13.30	Closing session (Valedictory functions)

Annex IV

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

1.	ROEAO-79/RWG.1	Agenda
2.	ROEAO-79/RWG.2	Guidelines for the country papers
3.	ROEAO-79/RWG.3	Information paper and time-table
4.	ROEAO-79/RWG.4	Annotated agenda
5.	ROEAO-79/RWG.5	Country reports: Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Republic of Korea and Thailand
6.	ROEAO-79/RWG.6	List of documents
7.	ROEAO-79/RWG.7	List of participants
8.	ROEAO-79/RWG./INF.1	Meeting of the Panel of Consultants on "Educational Goals and Theories", organized jointly by the Division of Philosophy and the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, 9-13 June 1975
9.	ROEAO-79/RWG./INF.2	IInd meeting of the Panel of Consultants on "Educational Goals and Theories", organized jointly by the Division of Philosophy and the International Bureau of Education, Paris, 8-11 June 1976
10.	ROEAO-79/RWG./REF.1	Educational objectives in selected Asian countries; a comparison of trends 1960's-1970's
11.	SS-79/CONF.607/10	Draft report: Meeting of Experts on the Place of Human Rights in Cultural and Religious Traditions, Bangkok, December 1979

Annex V

MEMBERS OF GROUPS A AND B

Group A

Participants	:	Dato' Haji Ahmad bin Haji Saleh (Malaysia) - Chairman Mr. R. Ibrahim (Indonesia) - Rapporteur Prof. M.V. Mathur (India) Mr. Ram Chandra Bahadur Singh (Nepal) Mr. Kazuhiko Hironaka (Japan) Dr. Antonio G. Dumlao (Philippines)
Discussant	:	Khunying Mrs. Ambhorn Meesook (Thailand)
Observer	:	Mr. P.R. Chauhan (India)
Unesco Secretariat:		Mr. Hans Reiff
NIEPA Secretariat	:	Mr. C.L. Sapra Dr. S. Nagappa

Group B

Participants	:	Dr. S.K. Mitra (India) - Chairman Prof. Zhu Bo (China) Dr. Khalid Hasan Bokhari (Pakistan) Mr. Kyung Duk Huh (Republic of Korea) Dr. Saiyut Champatong (Thailand)
Discussant	:	Mr. J.P. Naik (India)
Unesco Secretariat:		Mr. Raja Roy Singh Mr. J. Ratnaike
NIEPA Secretariat	:	Mr. J. Veeraraghavan - Rapporteur Dr. B.R. Goyal

Appendix A

Welcome address by Prof. M.V. Mathur, Director
National Institute of Educational Planning
and Administration, New Delhi, India

Hon'ble Chief Guest Prof. D.T. Lakdawala
Distinguished participants in the Workshop
Director, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia
and Oceania
Chief of Unesco Mission in India
Secretary-General of the Indian National Commission
for Co-operation with Unesco
Ladies and gentlemen

It is my proud privilege this morning to welcome you all to the inaugural session of Regional Workshop on Goals and Theories of Education in Asia. We, in this Institute, are particularly happy to find in our midst distinguished representatives of various countries in Asia. They bring with them varied experiences of their rich cultures to deliberate on the important themes of this workshop. We hope their stay in New Delhi will be pleasant and rewarding.

We, in this Institute, are particularly happy to welcome once again a group of educational experts from various Asian countries. This Institute owes its origin to the initiative taken by Unesco in founding jointly with the Government of India, the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration in 1962. During the ten years of the existence of AIEPA we had the pleasure of receiving about 300 senior Education Officers from different countries,several of whom, we are happy to note, are now occupying important positions in the field of educational planning and administration. While in its present shape the Institute's activities are geared primarily to meet the requirements in the field of educational planning and administration of our own system, serving the needs of the region continues to be an important plank in our programmes. We, therefore, felt very much honoured when we were asked by Unesco's Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania through our National Commission to help in the organization of this workshop. May I take this opportunity Mr. Director of Unesco's Regional Office to thank you and through you the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, for providing us the privilege of hosting this workshop?

Goals and theories of education have attracted the attention of philosophers in all parts of the world. In my own country, ideals of self-development (Uddesha Sahasri - XVII-4), search for truth and international understanding have been highlighted.

Over the years intermingling of religions and peoples coming to our country from different parts of the world have further highlighted the ideas of democracy and brotherhood of man, care for the weak and the down-trodden, importance of the means rather than the ends and emphasis on non-violence, and team work.

Unesco's own contributions in recent years in highlighting within the fold of education the importance of not only literacy and numeracy but also of skills and value systems and its emphasis on life-long education have provided to modern educators a framework of educational goals which need to be converted into effective policies and programmes.

In the countries of our region, which largely belong to the so-called 'developing' or 'Third World', the needs of overall national development are particularly urgent. As workers in the field of education, it is our task to highlight its normative aspects, take note of its present position and develop a strategy for bridging the gulf between what it is and what it should be.

Education can be looked at in its micro aspect as well as its macro aspect. In its micro aspect, education should provide for self-development and self-fulfilment of the individual, to some extent for its own sake. In its macro aspect, education has to prepare the individuals for playing their due role in societal development. In all this, the educators should have on the one hand a proper appreciation of the quintessence of the past and, on the other, a vision of the future of mankind and the role of our countrymen in this. It is through educational endeavour that we should make this vision a reality. In short, education should attempt optimal development of the total faculties of an individual - mental, moral and physical - to enable him to achieve maximal self-fulfilment and contribute his very best to societal growth. This involves multifaceted growth of the individual as 'a whole man' to meet the challenge of development of our 'whole society'. A very fine commentary on the present position of our education has been provided by the well known poet T.S. Eliot in the following words:

> Where is the Life we have lost in Living?
> Where is the Vision we have lost in Knowledge?
> Where is the Knowledge we have lost in Information?

For remedying the present position we need certain 'sets of judgments' as the philosophers would call them. Distinguished participants in the workshop, while welcoming you to this Institute and to our country, I invite you to develop these sets of judgments in your triple role as social philosophers, educational statesmen and practical administrators.

Appendix B

Statement of welcome by Mr. Raja Roy Singh, Director
Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania
Bangkok, Thailand

Your Excellency
Ladies and gentlemen
Distinguished participants

It is a great pleasure and honour to me to welcome you all to this Regional Workshop on Goals and Theories of Education in Asia on behalf of Unesco and to bring to you the greetings and felicitations of Mr. M'Bow, the Director-General of Unesco. I am very thankful to the distinguished participants for responding to our invitation to come to New Delhi. My sincere thanks go to the Government of India which has so generously offered to host our meeting and to provide the hospitality of the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration. On behalf of Unesco and on behalf of all the participants I should like to express our gratitude to you, Your Excellency, the Deputy Chairman, for your presence with us this morning despite the heavy calls on your time by affairs of State.

The present workshop, which is organized jointly by the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, Bangkok, the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, and our host, the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi, is one in a series started in 1975 with a view to promoting research on the philosophy and aims of education with emphasis on a critical scrutiny of the theoretical foundations of contemporary education.

A number of international and regional meetings have already taken place in this area. In Asia, during the period 1969-1973, a number of expert meetings on Educational Goals, Aims and Objectives were organized, jointly with the National Institute for Educational Research in Japan focussing on research needs in this area. All this gives to our meeting a rich background on which to build and to focus on reviewing the relevance of educational goals in the fast changing context of socio-economic reality and on the emerging policy directions in education, with particular reference to Asia.

At this very early moment in the new decade which started only a few weeks ago, it may be appropriate to reflect on our educational goals and on the theories which implicitly and explicitly guide the translation of these goals into policies, plans and programmes. As you know, at the international and regional levels, Governments will have to decide this year on

the main strategy for the Third Development Decade, balancing between a New International Economic Order and a Basic Needs focus and reflecting such universally acceptable concepts like interdependence, self-reliance and cultural identity in a coherent and realistic programme of action.

At the national level, many countries in the region are on the threshold of formulating their new cycle of Five Year Plan, operationalizing such societal goals as social equity, cultural freedom, economic development and on improvement in the quality of life of all citizens.

While the important role of education in achieving these goals is generally recognized, I think it is fair to say that we have not yet fully explored all the ways in which educational policies can mobilize all learning processes in our societies for this purpose, both within the educational system as well as externally. I believe that the process of conceiving educational goals carries in itself the potential of mobilizing untapped resources. Thus, while the workshop will discuss the social process of defining educational goals as influenced by different belief systems in society, your deliberations will undoubtedly also reflect problems of policy formulation, planning and resource mobilization, allocation and utilization in the decision making process for educational development.

The process of goal setting in education is basically a national activity, guided by principles of endogenous development and self-reliance. However, this is also an area rich with opportunities for mutual sharing of experiences. This workshop is notably fortunate in bringing together a diverse range of experiences out of which will emerge your suggestions and reflections.

I wish the workshop all success in its deliberations.

Appendix C

Inaugural address by Prof. D.T. Lakdawala
Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission
Government of India, New Delhi

I am very grateful to the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration for the opportunity they have given to me to meet this eminent gathering. While the concepts of development and of the role of educational systems in that context are governed by the socio-economic features and cultural patterns of each nation and are, therefore, nation-specific, in a closely interconnected world they tend, in some respects, to transcend national boundaries necessitating common approaches, especially within a region. The participation in this workshop of educational experts from the different countries of Asia provides a unique opportunity for a rich exchange of thought and experiences - an exercise in TCDC, an attempt at self-education of the educators. The first year of the decade of the Eighties earmarked for pushing through determined efforts towards a new world order is an opportune moment for such a meeting. May I convey my heartiest congratulations to the NIEPA, the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania, Bangkok, and the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, for organizing this Regional Workshop on 'Goals and Theories of Education in Asia' at a very appropriate time?

The goals of education are derived from national goals and the educational means to achieve them. These are no longer limited to the traditional concepts either of economic development or of schooling. Development is now regarded as a process of structural changes in the economic, political, social and cultural domains. The strategy and direction of planned development have undergone significant changes. The growth of GNP (Gross National Product) or investment is no longer regarded as the only important objective of development. Increase in production of mass consumption goods, satisfaction of basic needs, equitable income distribution, employment promotion and economic and social uplift of the weaker sectors are regarded as more important criteria of progress. In articulating policies and action programmes within this framework, stress is laid more explicitly upon the need for appreciably improving the living standard of the weakest - Antyodaya. This has to be achieved not so much by direct redistribution of income and assets as through bringing them within the productive fold and improving and fully harnessing their talents, skills and capabilities. This implies corresponding obligations on the privileged groups, to bring their best to the programme of national development, and yet not to take advantage of their strategic position in society to press their claims for a higher share in the small national cake.

An important outcome of this new thinking has been that the conception of man as the source of labour power, a factor of production or as a commodity by means of which more commodities can be produced, has been enlarged by the realization that development is for the benefit of common man and that the goals of development should be socially oriented towards his felt needs so as to enable him to realize his potentialities. It follows that when there is a conflict between the production of goods intended for a small privileged minority over that for the masses, the choice should clearly fall on the latter. Distribution and access to resources, equality and social justice are, therefore, as important as the quantum of resources itself. The concept of the New International Economic Order extends this principle in a limited manner beyond the nation to the world as whole.

If people are to be responsible for development, they should not only be the beneficiaries of development, but also agents responsible for setting its goals and settling means of their achievement. This will require their full participation for arranging their own priorities and for taking the proper decisions and applying them. It is comparatively easy to achieve these at a highly decentralized level of local control and planning. How to reconcile it with the needs of a highly complex production mechanism needing firm decisions and integration at the national level is a matter exercising the best minds of the world. It demands the inculcation of confidence, awareness, knowledge and capacity among the masses to create and direct the development process. Recent events indicate a lack of determination in many parts of the developed world to face vital problems like those of natural resource exhaustion and pollution. The developing world cannot afford any such deficiency. All these emphasize the case for more precise definition of goals, means and coverage of education as an autonomous but at the same time integral part of the social system assisting national development.

The educational apparatus, institutionalized, legally sanctioned and in operation has been in existence for long. With schools and colleges as its main plants, it has been processing people in large numbers but with antiquated methods, nondescript quality control and a certain refractoriness to changes in its environment. It has failed to take into account the cultural and social mores and traditions or to properly utilize the rich informal learning traditions available in societies as a valuable source to develop human potential. The diverse and increasing demands made on educational services by a rapidly evolving society are confronting its management and practitioners with basic problems which tend to question its objectives, methods, and even utility.

The new demands on the educational system arise from factors external to it as well as inherent in it. The former are on account of the new emphasis on employment objectives of development strategies and changing dimensions and characteristics of the labour market. In a way, the employment test

is the most obvious, though very rough, manifestation of the relevance of education. Partly because of the attitudes and expectations perpetuated and stimulated by traditional educational systems, there occurs a growing discrepancy between the employment opportunities which exist on the labour markets and the job expectations in the minds of the school leavers and graduates. Education has thus in a way decreased the employability of individuals instead of the reverse.

It is necessary that the role and responsibility of education in regard to employment promotion is properly appreciated. The overwhelming interest among the development scientists during the Sixties in the economics of education, mainly the net individual benefit education brings, has led to an exaggerated notion of the contribution which education can make to economic development of the society. It is not as if education per se is causing unemployment or that education can much increase the overall level of employment; changes in educational policy can help only through promotion of the right type of attitudes and abilities to fully use such employment opportunities as economic policy creates. Special measures aiming at promotion of employment of the educated may only result in displacement of those who are not so educated but are nonetheless employed. The need is perhaps greater for the appropriate education of the latter to enhance their productivity and work efficiency.

Education is increasingly used by the individuals as an alternative to being unemployed particularly because the private costs of education are low and the element of foregone earnings negligible. Employing systems tend to encourage this by specifying their recruitment rules in terms of educational qualifications in degrees and certificates which are not always essential for the specific job. They seldom promote post-employment education of employees. The educational system also does not offer adequate facilities for such education. In a situation where the level of his initial entry into employment determines more or less his entire career growth the tendency of the individual to accumulate as much education as he can before seeking employment is easily explicable. Naturally, such education cannot enhance social use or promote employment.

The responsibility of educational planners and practitioners is made complex by another important characteristic of the education process. Education takes a long time. At the rate of social and technological changes we are now experiencing, the world would be very different by the time those now entering school emerge into their working life cycle. Means of looking into the future systematically with the object of devising educational and other related plans, policies and programmes are inadequate at present, and, therefore, it becomes difficult to qualify students precisely for the careers they will pursue in their later life. A more flexible system which will enable them to go on acquiring the necessary equipment as they proceed in life is essential.

We have heard a great deal about lifelong learning but there has not been much discussion in respect of redistributing the educational intake of persons. With the current stage of knowledge explosion and the slow pace of knowledge acquired in schools maturing into education useful to life, a time has come to think in terms of a minimum formal schooling to begin with and more later on after providing for some well-organized non-school room experience in the world of work. Interleaving school and non-school experiences increases the value of education to the individuals and the efficiency of use of educational resources. The phenomena of dropouts and talented underachievers are a pointer towards this need to design such alternative ways to educate.

The means and forms of providing teaching/learning situations have multiplied and diversified; so have the educational needs of the hetrogenous groups of population in the community. A single educational programme proves inadequate to suit the needs of every one. Older people would have different needs from youngsters. Women have different needs from men. As opportunities occur for individuals to become different from one another, provision is required for educating them differentially. Our present system does not make sufficient provision for these variations. Its uniform methods depend heavily on the educators' anticipation of what the students as a whole require to know. Seldom do we analyse the social and other real constraints which create a hiatus between perceived need and actual practice. Persons from economically disadvantaged backgrounds have, therefore, been unable to profit from the usual schooling available to them in spite of several special inducements. The motivation and active participation of the learners themselves are important factors in evolving a useful educational programme or system. The traditional system needs to be augmented and supplemented by a process in which the students could, under guidance, explore in ways best suited to realize their own learning needs. In addition to providing for individualization, this would develop an attitude of selfpaced movement and ultimately of leadership that could be beneficial to the person and to society.

Organizations are gaining in importance and, as counterveiling power, but much more as a creative productive force, organization of the hitherto unorganized sectors becomes essential. Achieving social objectives tends increasingly to require organized group competence as much as individual capabilities. Individuals must learn to live in and through organizations more effectively than they now do. Its implications for education are enormous.

Intensifying intercommunity interactions pose a new set of factors for educational designs. Society, formerly characterized by a small elite group and a large mass group, is evolving into one whose dominant features are a large middle class and continuous mobility among classes. This could mean upheavals in prevalent approaches to social problems. The individual should be able, through education,

to extract from his environment all that is relevant to his life, to avail himself of the opportunities it offers, to organize what he learns and use it in the formulation and solution of problems. Education should stress concepts of originality and synthesis as much as objectivity and analysis. Much more research seems to be required to support action programmes in this direction.

The education we offer to our young people should contain a healthy share of attention to the process of imparting the needed attitude and skills to inquire, assess and choose from among alternative social value systems. This brings us to the role of education as a cultural force. The Unesco programme rightly brings together approaches based on studies in philosophy on the nature of man and those in the field of education to develop human potential. Human nature and human creativity are so interrelated that one cannot be divorced from the other. Development by and for the people implies the creation of a new culture in order to link cultural development to economic, political and social development. Questions of people's involvement and the kinds and extent of their participation in the vital processes of society are related to this. We should start making serious attempts to articulate cultural aspects more and more into the curricular programmes as a powerful medium of education.

Before concluding, I may be permitted to refer to the Sixth Five Year Plan of India. Its primary objectives are to achieve within a period of ten years the removal of unemployment and significant underemployment, an appreciable rise in the standard of living of the poorest sections of the population and provision by the State of the basic needs of the people, including elementary education and adult literacy. The educational system in this context should be enabled to respond to socio-economic realities and to promote the evolution of a society without large inequalities. As a means of equalizing opportunities, a far greater priority is given to the programmes of universalizing elementary education for children in the age group 6-14 years by increasing the usefulness of the educational programmes and ensuring actual attendance and retention rather than mere enrolment in schools.

Adult education which has been neglected in the past is accorded a high priority. It emphasizes not only the acquisition of literacy and numeracy but also functional development and social awareness so that the mass of people, especially in the age group 15 to 35 years, organize themselves to solve the problems of their day-to-day life as well as to profit from programmes of social and national development. The State intervention to finance the mass education programmes of elementary and adult education is built into a Revised Minimum Needs Programme - which also provides for rural health, rural water supply, rural roads, rural electrification, sites for landless labour, environmental improvement of urban slums and nutrition. Measures are proposed to ensure rural bias in educational programmes, to extend science education to develop

scientific attitudes, to provide more relevant non-formal education and training, and to improve the cultural content of the curricular programmes. The emphasis in secondary and higher education would be shifted to vocationalization and to improvement of quality rather than on quantitative expansion.

The formulation and implementation of educational programmes will be decentralized not only to make them functional at all levels but also to integrate them with area development plans and make them community oriented.

In many cases, when one critically examines the achievements, national educational goals turn out to be statements of intentions only. In the first place, the efficacy of an educational policy depends on the percentage of people - school-going and otherwise - which education covers, and these are likely to be notably limited. Even concrete and simple objectives like introducing elements of manual work at elementary stages and vocationalization courses later have defied Indian efforts. When it comes to changing long-inherited attitudes, like those to group within the community traditionally regarded lower to alien groups, or to developing genuine democratic spirit and reconciling the need for freedom of thought and expression with the imperative necessity for group and national cohesiveness and collective action, the problem becomes more intractable. I hope the workshop will be able to find out some effective means to achieve educational goals set for the nations.

One last word and I will have done. Educating people effectively is becoming complex and costly. It is now necessary to consider the planning and operation of the educational system in terms of modern management concepts incorporating measures for quality control, product mix, demand, cost and other explicit variables. The basic goal of education will, no doubt, continue to be to develop, nurture and cultivate the latent talent and faculties of human beings so as to enable them to realize their full potential and play their role in the community as instruments for development, as social leaders, as agents of change and, above all, as educators. But the changes in the society and in environment demand continuous adaptation of the educational system and its organization, methods and orientation. This highlights the need to establish operational linkages between the functions of educational planning on the one hand and, on the other, the functions of educational administration.

I have now great pleasure in declaring the Regional Workshop open and wish your deliberations all success.